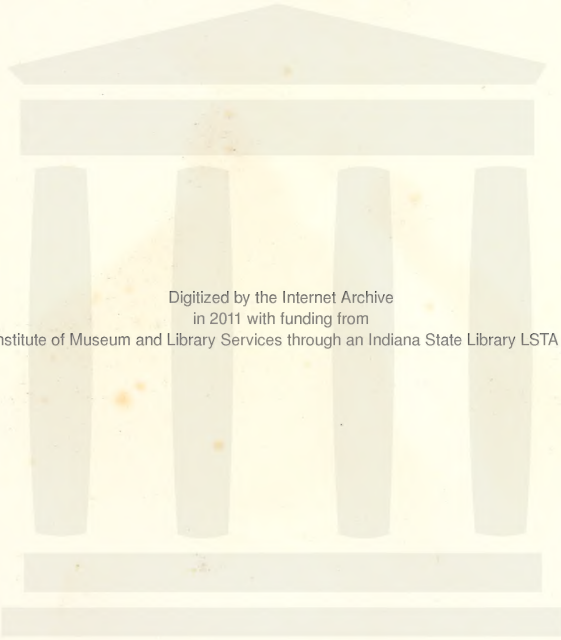


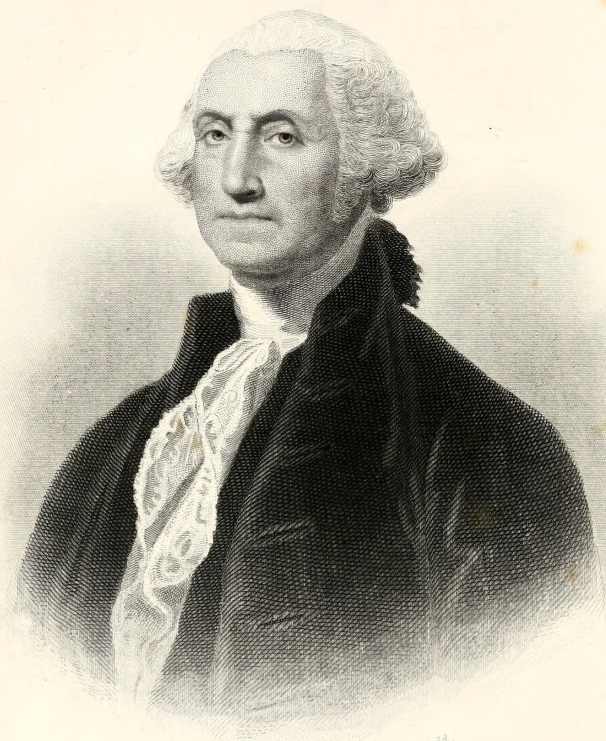
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T. JINGLAIR'S. LITH. PHILA.

LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

AN
ILLUSTRATED HISTORY
OF THE
NEW WORLD:
CONTAINING
A GENERAL HISTORY
OF ALL THE VARIOUS
NATIONS, STATES AND REPUBLICS
OF THE
WESTERN CONTINENT:

COMPRISING THE EARLIEST DISCOVERIES BY THE SPANISH, FRENCH,
AND OTHER NAVIGATORS, AN ACCOUNT OF THE
AMERICAN INDIANS, AND A

Complete History of the United States to the Present Time.

INCLUDING

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS, THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION,
THAT OF 1812, THE MEXICAN WAR, AND A COMPLETE

HISTORY OF THE LATE REBELLION,

EMBRACING THE BRILLIANT CAREER OF

GRANT, SHERMAN, SHERIDAN, AND THEIR BRAVE COMPATRIOTS.

WITH AN APPENDIX, CONTAINING THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED
STATES AND OTHER IMPORTANT PUBLIC DOCUMENTS, AND
VALUABLE STATISTICAL TABLES.

EDITED BY JOHN L. DENISON, A.M.,

Editor of The Pictorial History of the Wars, Pictorial Naval History, The New World in German, etc.

THE WHOLE ILLUSTRATED WITH OVER THREE HUNDRED ENGRAVINGS, CONSISTING OF BATTLE SCENES
VIEWS OF CITIES, FLAGS OF THE VARIOUS NATIONS, PROMINENT EVENTS, AND PORTRAITS
OF DISTINGUISHED MEN, FROM DESIGNS BY LOSSING, CROOME, DEVERAUX,
AND OTHER CELEBRATED AMERICAN ARTISTS.

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PREFACE.

THE presentation of this volume to the public, realizes a long-cherished object of its author, and also supplies a want that has long been felt, but that has hitherto been imperfectly if at all gratified. It is intended as an "ILLUSTRATED HISTORY OF AMERICA, OR THE NEW WORLD," and is believed to be the most complete, if not the only attempt that has been made, to present in a single volume so interesting and comprehensive an amount of matter.

As an accession to the library of the student or general reader, this volume, it is confidently believed, will be found of great value from the variety of its statistical facts and details, so important for reference and useful information; while its ornate presentation and beautifully illustrated character cannot fail to recommend it to public acceptance.

In executing this task, the author has availed himself of the ample collection of historical works, which his studies and writings for many years have led him to amass; and in condensing the history within the limits prescribed for the work, he has endeavored to avoid omitting any thing which was important to be comprised in a general history of the American continent.

Such a history necessarily comprises many events of romantic and thrilling interest; and brings into view

many characters who have won the admiration and applause of the world; while its historical details convey many important and useful lessons in morals, military and political science, and legislation.

To the American citizen all that relates to the history of his own country is always interesting; while the condition and character of the contiguous countries present objects of interest of a nature scarcely less attractive.

The pictorial embellishments which are inserted in the work are not intended for mere ornaments. Their use is to impress historical facts indelibly on the mind. This effect of pictures is now so generally acknowledged, that they seem to be indispensable in a book intended for general circulation among the people. For this reason, a very large number have been inserted in the volume; and they will be found by the reader to embrace an unusual variety of interesting subjects.

It is hoped that the work now submitted to the public will be found not unworthy of the same kind indulgence which has been manifested toward the previous attempts of the author to advance the great cause of popular information.



CONTENTS.

	PAGE
CHAPTER I.—DISCOVERIES OF THE NORTHMEN.....	13
II.—DISCOVERY OF COLUMBUS.....	21
III.—SPANISH DISCOVERIES AND CONQUESTS.....	27
IV.—THE CONQUEST OF MEXICO.....	36
V.—RECENT HISTORY OF MEXICO.....	80
VI.—CENTRAL AMERICA.....	91
VII.—CALIFORNIA.....	112
VIII.—FLORIDA.....	120
IX.—CANADA UNDER THE FRENCH.....	142
X.—MINOR PROVINCES OF BRITISH AMERICA.....	163
XI.—HISTORY OF OREGON.....	194
XII.—GREENLAND.....	198
XIII.—RUSSIAN AMERICA.....	200
XIV.—SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA.....	203
XV.—VIRGINIA TILL THE PEACE OF 1763.....	226
XVI.—MARYLAND.....	234
XVII.—MASSACHUSETTS.....	240
XVIII.—SETTLEMENT OF CONNECTICUT.....	259
XIX.—RHODE ISLAND.....	264
XX.—MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE.....	266
XXI.—NEW YORK.....	269
XXII.—NEW JERSEY.....	281
XXIII.—PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.....	285
XXIV.—THE CAROLINAS AND GEORGIA.....	293
XXV.—THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.....	301
XXVI.—COMMENCEMENT OF THE REVOLUTION.....	31
XXVII.—FIRST HOSTILITIES OF THE REVOLUTION.....	319
XXVIII.—EXPEDITION TO CANADA.....	330

	PAGE
CHAP. XXIX.—CAMPAIGN OF 1776.....	334
XXX.—CAMPAIGN OF 1777 AND CONCLUSION OF THE TREATY WITH FRANCE.....	354
XXXI.—CAMPAIGN OF 1778.....	377
XXXII.—CAMPAIGN OF 1779.....	389
XXXIII.—CAMPAIGN OF 1780.....	403
XXXIV.—CAMPAIGN OF 1781.....	417
XXXV.—CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.....	435
XXXVI.—ORGANIZATION OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. WASHING- TON'S ADMINISTRATION.....	440
XXXVII.—ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS.....	454
XXXVIII.—ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON.....	459
XXXIX.—ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON.....	474
XL.—CAMPAIGN OF 1812.....	480
XLI.—CAMPAIGN OF 1813.....	490
XLII.—CAMPAIGN OF 1814.....	504
XLIII.—ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MONROE.....	520
XLIV.—ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.....	523
XLV.—ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JACKSON.....	525
XLVI.—ADMINISTRATION OF MARTIN VAN BUREN.....	529
XLVII.—ADMINISTRATIONS OF HARRISON AND TYLER.....	531
XLVIII.—HISTORY OF TEXAS	534
XLIX.—ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES K. POLK—OPENING OF THE MEXICAN WAR	540
L.—OPERATIONS OF GENERAL TAYLOR.....	544
LI.—OPERATIONS IN CALIFORNIA AND NEW MEXICO.....	560
LII.—CAMPAIGN OF GENERAL SCOTT.....	564
LIII.—ADMINISTRATION OF TAYLOR.....	605
“ “ FILLMORE.....	613
LIV.—ADMINISTRATION OF PIERCE.....	643
LV.—ADMINISTRATION OF BUCHANAN.....	
LVI.—ADMINISTRATION OF LINCOLN.....	671
LVII.—ADMINISTRATION OF JOHNSON	763
LVIII.—ADMINISTRATION OF GRANT.....	769
LIX.—CANADA UNDER THE BRITISH.....	781
LX.—SOUTH AMERICA.....	795
LXI.—THE WEST INDIES.....	821

APPENDIX.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.....	841
DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.....	850
ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.....	853
POPULATION OF ALL THE COUNTIES IN THE UNITED STATES, AC- CORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1860.....	868



LIST

OF

THE PRINCIPAL ILLUSTRATIONS.

	PAGE
HEAD Piece to Chapter I.	13
Discovery of Greenland.....	14
Landing of the Northmen.....	15
Tyrker discovering the Grapes	16
Ships of the Northmen	17
Northmen trading with Indians	19
Biorne's Presents	20
Columbus.....	21
Francis I.....	23
Henry VII.	24
Sailing of Columbus.....	25
Vespucci	26
Balboa	27
Pizarro	30
Balboa discovering the Pacific Ocean	31
Pedriarías	33
Landing of Cortes.....	36
Olmedo.....	39
Volcanic Mountains, as seen from Tacubaya	43
Gladiatorial Sacrifice.....	46
Montezuma	51
Cortes.....	52
Massacre at Cholula	54
Cortes marching into Mexico.....	57
The Great Temple of Mexico.....	60
Cortes ordering Montezuma to be chained	63
Expedition of Narvaez.....	66
Defeat of Narvaez	68
Sandoval	72
Cortes at Otumba	74
Olid.....	76
Termination of the Aqueduct in Mexico	79
Interior of a Mexican House	80
Joseph Bonaparte	82
Mina	84
Iturbide	86

	PAGE
Bustamente.....	88
Alaman.....	89
Pedro Alvarado.....	91
Kicab Tanub.....	93
Great Battle between Alvarado and the Quiches.....	95
Celebration of the Founding of St. Jago.....	98
Charles V.....	100
Alonso de Maldonado.....	102
Flores.....	104
Juan Diaz de Solis.....	107
Santiago Iman.....	110
San Francisco, California.....	112
Monterey, Upper California.....	115
Ponce de Leon.....	120
Ponce de Leon wounded.....	122
Narvaez in Florida.....	124
Almagro.....	126
Soto appointed Adelantado.....	127
Soto discovering the Mississippi.....	132
Verazzano.....	134
Admiral Coligni.....	135
Saturiova showing the Monument.....	136
Jacques Cartier.....	140
Cartier taking possession of New France.....	143
Champlain ascending the St. Lawrence.....	145
Place d'Armes, Montreal.....	147
Lake George.....	150
Expedition of Sir David Kirke.....	152
New Cathedral, Montreal.....	154
Canadian Hut.....	159
Bay of Quebec.....	163
Indian Village on the St. Lawrence.....	164
Settlement of Port Royal.....	165
Fishing Station on the coast of Nova Scotia.....	168
Marlborough.....	169
Surrender of Louisbourg.....	173
Louis XV.....	174
Halifax.....	176
Domiciliated Indians.....	177
Sir Guy Carlton.....	178
St. John's, New Brunswick.....	183
Cod-Fishery, Newfoundland.....	184
Lord Baltimore.....	186
Entrance into Hudson's Bay.....	188
Trading with Indians.....	189
Parry's Expedition.....	191
Astoria.....	194
Subterranean Hut in the Northern Regions.....	201
Peter the Great.....	202
Sebastian Cabot.....	203
Grenville burning an Indian Town.....	205
Raleigh.....	207
Gosnold's Voyage.....	210
Captain John Smith.....	213
Powhatan.....	215
Captain Smith exploring Chesapeake Bay.....	217
Pocahontas rescuing Captain Smith.....	219
Capture of Pocahontas.....	221
The Christian Indian disclosing the intended Massacre.....	223
The Great Massacre.....	224
James I.....	226
Arrest of Harvey.....	227
Charles I.....	228
Signing of Bacon's Commission.....	230
Cecil Calvert.....	232

	PAGE
Settlement of St. Mary's.....	236
William III.	238
John Winthrop.....	240
Landing of the Pilgrims.....	242
Death of Governor Carver	244
The Treaty with Massasoit.....	245
Settlement of Boston	246
Banishment of Roger Williams.....	247
Sir Harry Vane	248
Trial of Wenlock Christison	251
Scene in King Philip's War	252
Burning of Springfield	254
Emigration of Mr. Hooper and his company	259
Massacre of the Pequods.....	260
Signing of the New England confederation	261
Roger Williams entertained by the Indians	264
Gorges and Mason naming their provinces	266
Governor Stuyvesant	269
Gustavus Adolphus.....	273
Charles II. giving the New Netherlands to the Duke of York	275
James II.	276
Treaty with the Five Nations	278
Nassau Hall, New Jersey.....	281
William Penn.....	285
The Treaty Monument, on the site of the elm tree, where Penn's treaty was made.....	288
Interview between William Penn and Lord Baltimore	290
Savannah in 1778.....	293
The Earl of Clarendon	295
General Oglethorpe	298
General Wolfe	301
Washington's interview with St. Pierre	304
Massacre at Fort William Henry	306
Abercrombie crossing Lake George.....	307
Ruins of Ticonderoga	308
Death of General Wolfe.....	309
Samuel Adams.....	310
Stamp Act riot.....	311
Reception of the news of the repeal of the Stamp Act	312
John Hancock.....	313
Faneuil Hall	314
Boston Massacre	315
Destruction of the Tea in Boston Harbour	316
Carpenters' Hall.....	317
British naval costume.....	318
Siege of Boston	319
Affair at Lexington	320
Provincials harassing the British on their retreat from Concord	321
Colonel Allen capturing Ticonderoga	322
General Warren.....	324
Washington's head-quarters at Cambridge.....	328
General Ward	329
General Montgomery	330
Death of Montgomery	332
Monument to General Montgomery at St. Paul's church, New-York ..	333
Battle-Ground of Trenton.....	334
Sir Peter Parker	336
Defence of Fort Moultrie.....	337
Independence hall, Philadelphia, when the Declaration of Independence was signed.....	340
Lord Howe	341
General Howe	342
General Sullivan	343
The retreat of the American army from Long Island	344
General Lee's head-quarters at Baskinridge	347

	PAGE
Battle of Trenton.....	348
Battle of Princeton.....	349
Washington crossing the Delaware.....	350
Washington's head-quarters at Brandywine.....	354
General Wooster.....	355
Battle of Brandywine.....	358
Battle of Germantown.....	359
Battle of Red Bank.....	360
Washington's head-quarters at Valley Forge.....	361
Murder of Miss M'Crea.....	363
Battle of Bennington.....	364
General Schuyler.....	365
Arnold at Bemis's Heights.....	366
Burgoyne's retreat up the Hudson.....	367
Surrender of Burgoyne.....	368
General Burgoyne.....	369
Lord North.....	370
Silas Deane.....	372
Thomas Paine.....	374
Conclusion of the treaty with France.....	376
Commodore John Paul Jones.....	377
General Gates.....	379
Battle of Monmouth.....	381
Count d'Estaing.....	382
Massacre at Wyoming.....	384
Colonel George R. Clarke.....	385
Captain Biddle.....	386
Battle between the Ranger and Drake.....	387
Baron Steuben.....	389
Specimens of Continental Bills.....	391
Capture of Stony Point.....	395
General Henry Lee.....	397
Death of Pulaski.....	400
Capture of the Serapis.....	401
General Marion.....	402
Tarleton's Quarters.....	404
Baron de Kalb.....	405
General Sumpter.....	407
Battle of King's Mountain.....	409
Count de Rochambeau.....	410
West Point.....	412
Capture of Andre.....	413
Major Andre.....	414
General Greene.....	416
Colonel Howard.....	417
Colonel Williams.....	420
Colonel Washington.....	422
Battle of Eutaw Springs.....	424
Lord Rawdon.....	425
Arnold's descent on Virginia.....	426
General La Fayette.....	427
General Wayne's celebrated charge on the British army.....	428
Count de Grasse.....	429
Yorktown, from a drawing by Mrs. Simcoe.....	431
La Fayette taking the redoubt at Yorktown.....	432
Moore's house, Yorktown.....	433
Battle-Ground of Yorktown.....	434
Captain Barry.....	434
Henry Laurens.....	435
Colonel Laurens.....	436
Commodore Barney.....	437
Washington's head-quarters at Newburgh.....	438
Washington.....	440
Mount Vernon.....	442
Washington taking the oath of office in front of the old Federal Hall, New York.....	443

	PAGE
Alexander Hamilton.....	444
General Wayne defeating the Indians at the Miami.....	447
General Knox.....	449
Mount Vernon.....	453
John Adams.....	454
Commodore Murray.....	455
Capture of L'Insurgente.....	456
Commodore Truxtun.....	457
Tomb of Washington.....	458
Thomas Jefferson.....	459
Commodore Dale.....	462
General Eaton.....	463
Commodore Bainbridge.....	465
Capture of Derne.....	468
Mobile.....	469
Aaron Burr.....	469
George Clinton.....	470
Affair in the Chesapeake.....	471
General Wilkinson.....	472
James Madison.....	474
Tecumseh.....	476
Council of Vincennes.....	477
General Harrison.....	478
Commodore Hull.....	480
Defence of Fort Harrison.....	483
Queenstown.....	484
Commodore Porter.....	485
Captain Lawrence.....	488
Capture of the Caledonia and Detroit.....	489
Fort Niagara.....	490
Massacre at the River Raisin.....	491
Death of General Pike.....	494
Sackett's Harbour.....	495
Battle of the Thames.....	498
Battle of Emuckfaw.....	500
Battle of Tohopeka.....	501
Captain Allen.....	503
General Ripley.....	506
General Miller.....	507
General Macomb.....	508
Commodore McDonough.....	508
Battle of Lake Champlain.....	509
Bombardment of Fort McHenry.....	512
Cruise of the Essex.....	516
Captain Blakely.....	517
James Monroe.....	520
John Quincy Adams.....	523
Andrew Jackson.....	525
Thomas H. Benton.....	527
Destruction of Major Dade's detachment.....	528
Martin Van Buren.....	529
William H. Harrison.....	531
James K. Polk.....	539
Corpus Christi.....	541
Point Isabel.....	542
General Taylor.....	544
Battle of Palo Alto.....	546
Captain May.....	547
Matamoras.....	548
General Taylor advancing to Monterey.....	550
Cavalry Action of the 21st of September.....	551
Bishop's Palace, Monterey.....	554
Storming of Monterey.....	555
General Taylor taking leave of the troops.....	556
Repulse of the Mexican Cavalry at Buena Vista.....	558

	PAGE
Colonel Jefferson Davis.....	559
Colonel Fremont.....	560
Battle of Bracito.....	562
General Kearney wounded at San Pasqual.....	563
General Scott.....	564
Vera Cruz.....	566
Commodore Perry.....	567
Scott's Landing at Vera Cruz.....	567
Battle of Cerro Gordo.....	568
Colonel Baker.....	570
General Twiggs.....	574
General Pierce.....	575
General Shields.....	576
General Pillow.....	578
Charge of the Palmettos.....	579
Molino del Rey, Chapultepec in the distance.....	582
Storming of Molino del Rey.....	583
Colonel Ransom.....	585
Major, now Colonel Seymour.....	586
General Persifor F. Smith.....	587
General Worth.....	588
Scott's Entrance into Mexico.....	589
Colonel Childs.....	591
William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham.....	595
Charles James Fox.....	597
View from the Citadel at Kingston.....	599
Sir Robert Peel.....	600
Lake of the Two Mountains.....	602
Navy Island.....	603
Toronto.....	605
Zachary Taylor.....	605
John C. Calhoun.....	611
Millard Fillmore.....	618
Henry Clay.....	633
Daniel Webster.....	634
Franklin Pierce.....	643
James Buchanan.....	659
View of Sebastopol at the Final Assault.....	661
Abraham Lincoln.....	678
Map of Pacific Railroad.....	774

INTRODUCTION.

AMERICA, OR THE NEW WORLD.

THE pen of the historian has hitherto been busy in describing all that relates to the Old World, and innumerable treatises on Europe, Asia, and Africa, have been the result. Be it our task to bring to view the important events relating to the NEW WORLD, and to place before the reader a succession of narrations, which, with the accompanying illustrations, shall possess the interest and fidelity of a panoramic description.

America, or the New World, comprises nearly one-half of the habitable globe, and, with its vast surrounding oceans and numerous islands, is known as the western hemisphere. It is divided into NORTH and SOUTH AMERICA. The former extends from 8° to $81^{\circ} 22'$ N. lat., the highest point of exploration, and from 55° to 168° W. lon., embracing an area of over 8,000,000 square miles, and is separated from Asia on the northwest by the narrow strip of water known as Behring's Straits. Its winding outline presents a great extent of sea-coast, estimated at about 9,500 miles on the eastern, and somewhat more on the western side, in addition to the frozen shores of the northern border. South America is comprised between the 12th degree of north, and the 56th of south latitude, and 36° and 81° W. longitude, containing an area of about 6,500,000 square miles. Both divisions possess a peculiarly tapering form to the south, the former terminating at the narrow isthmus of Panama, and the latter, after passing the 6th degree of south latitude, gradually contracting its dimensions, and ending in the curved and tempestuous point of Cape Horn.

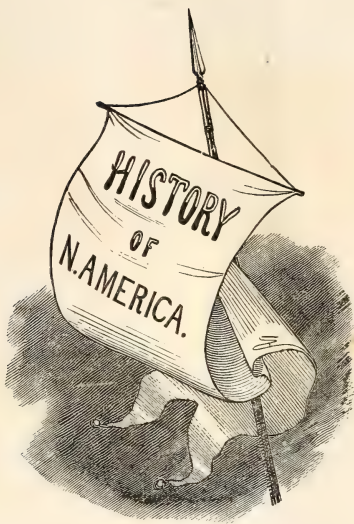
The first discoveries of America remain with some a subject of historical doubt. We have, however, in our first chapter, given an account, which we believe to be reliable, of the discoveries of the enterprising Northmen, as early as the tenth century, embracing Greenland, Labrador, and portions even, as far south as the New England coasts. Centuries before this, an extensive immigration must have taken place,

INTRODUCTION.

from Asia, by way of Behring's Straits, and thus we are enabled to account for the aboriginal population, and the evidences of a former civilization, here found. But, hidden for ages from the knowledge of the learned and enlightened nations of the Old World, the true discovery of America dates from the period of Christoval Colon, a native of the republic of Genoa, better known to us as Christopher Columbus, whose immortal enterprises, and those of his successors, are narrated in succeeding chapters.

Prominent among these successors were the Cabots, John and Sebastian, Venetians by birth, who, under the patronage of Henry VII. of England, discovered, in 1497, the northern portion of America. The name America is derived from Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, who was a secondary agent in the discoveries, but the first to publish an account of them.

And what a mighty event it has proved to the inhabitants of the earth! An entire hemisphere was brought to light, constituting in reality a NEW WORLD, with a greater variety of climate and susceptibility of production, with more expansive lakes, broader and more fertile plains, mightier rivers, more majestic mountains, and a scenery throughout more impressive, than were ever seen before. And with the discovery and settlement of America came a new life, and a new history to be recorded. It is from this, as much as from its recent discovery, that our continent justly derives its appellation. Beginning with the early Spanish conquests, we are rapidly presented with a succession of heroic struggles for the erection of new states and empires on this continent. New thoughts and aspirations were here given wing, new and more active energies were brought into exercise, and, despite hardships and conflicts of every nature, a new order of things has been successfully erected, prominent among which is the principle of political self-government, especially as illustrated in our own prosperous and renowned republic.



CHAPTER I.

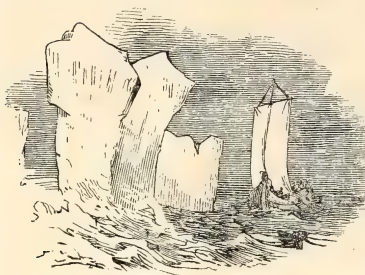
DISCOVERIES OF THE NORTHMEN.

THE name of Christopher Columbus has so long been associated with the first general knowledge of the New World, by Europeans, that numbers of the present day are ignorant of any discovery of our continent prior to his time. There is conclusive evidence, however, of such discovery having been made, although the fact cannot in the least detract from the hard-earned fame of the Genoese mariner. The people whose records and traditions bear testimony to this event, are the Normans or Northmen.

In the dark ages, the Northmen, natives of Scandinavia, which included Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were the most daring adventurers of Europe. At different periods, they conquered portions of France, England, Germany, and other nations of Northern and

Middle Europe, and established naval and trading stations along all the north-western coast. They also fitted out numerous expeditions for distant parts, several of which visited Iceland as early as the ninth century, and established a colony there.

In the year 986, Greenland was visited by Eric Rauda, (the Red,) who planted a colony on the south-eastern shore, and named it Brattalid. The whole country he called Greenland, either ironically or, most probably, for the purpose of alluring emigrants. Different settlements were styled Eric'sfiord, Heriulf'sfiord, Rafnsfiord, &c, after the names of the colonists.



DISCOVERY OF GREENLAND.

The Northern Chronicles give the honour of originating the spirit of discovery which resulted in first visiting the Continent now called America, to an enterprising young man, named Bjarne, son of Heriulf. He had distinguished himself by his activity in mercantile pursuits,

and acquired great knowledge of men and society, by visiting foreign countries. When Eric's expedition sailed from Denmark, Bjarne was in Norway; but, on ascertaining this, when he arrived in his native country, he followed it thither. Being totally unacquainted with Eric's course, the navigators wandered for some time upon the ocean, encountering violent winds and severe weather. This was succeeded by fogs. When the atmosphere again became clear, they discovered a level, sandy coast, swelling gradually into hills, whose tops and sides were crowned with thick woods. As this did not correspond to the description of Greenland sent to Europe by Eric, no landing was attempted. On the following day, more land was discovered, presenting the same topographical outline. Three days after, they came in sight of an island, and continuing their course for forty-eight hours, they reached the southern extremity of Greenland. They were received gladly by Heriulf, and remained in Greenland, until his death, when Bjarne succeeded in the administration of affairs.



LANDING OF THE NORTHMEN.

The account of the land seen by the young navigator excited much attention in the Greenland colony, and roused a spirit of adventure, somewhat singular in a youthful settlement. Under its influence, a son of Eric, named Leit, purchased Bjarne's vessel, and, with thirty-five men, set sail on a voyage of discovery, (about A. D. 1000.) Touching at the island seen by Bjarne, he called it Helluland, (flat land,) and reaching, soon after, the first land mentioned by his predecessor, he gave it the title of Markland, (woody land.) Two days after, they landed on an island covered with vegetation, and then sailing westward, they reached the mouth of a river, near a strait which separated the island from a high promontory



TYRKER DISCOVERING THE GRAPES.

and. A lake was the source of this stream. Pleased with this wild spot, Leif determined to establish here a colony ; and, accordingly, erected wooden huts on the shore of the lake, and caused his goods to be conveyed to the lake in boats.

After remaining some time, and building more commodious houses, the colony was organized into two parties, one of which explored the country at regular periods, while the other remained at home, the leader accompanying them alternately. On one of these expeditions, grapes were discovered by a German named Tykker ; and from this circumstance the country was called Wineland or Vinland. This discovery, together with the mildness of the climate, and the great abundance of salmon and other fish in the river, rendered them still more willing to form a permanent settlement.



SHIPS OF THE NORTHMEN.

According to the chronicles and traditions of this discovery, Vinland now forms the states of Massachusetts and Rhode Island. The other provinces visited by the Northmen are identified as Labrador, Nova Scotia, and the northern part of New England.

The climate of the new-found province was delightful. The grass is said to have remained green during winter, and the cattle, during the same time, placed at pasture in the fields. In the spring, Leif returned to Greenland with a cargo of wood, a circumstance that revived the spirit of discovery among his countrymen. His brother, Thorwald, sailed the following year in Leif's ship, reached the New England coast, and passed the winter at Mount Hope Bay. In the ensuing spring, (1002,) he again put to sea, doubled a cape, supposed to be Cape Cod, and sailed leisurely along the coast, until he reached a headland overgrown with wood. Two skirmishes here occurred with the natives, in the latter of which Thorwald received a mortal wound. He had been instructed in the Christian religion by his brother, and feeling his death approach, he collected his followers, and asked if any had been wounded. Being answered in the negative, he said: "As for me, I have received a wound under the arm from an arrow, and I feel that it will be mortal. I advise you to prepare immediately for your return: but ye shall first carry my body to the promontory which I thought so beautiful, and where I had determined to fix my residence. It may be that it was a prophetic word which fell from my lips, about my abiding there for a season. There shall ye bury me, and ye shall plant

a cross at my head and another at my feet, and ye shall call the name of the place Krossanes [Cape Cross] through all future time."

After Thorwald's death and burial his men returned to Mountlope, and in a year after to Greenland. The narrative of their discoveries and sufferings excited much attention, and Thorstein, a brother of the unfortunate adventurer, determined on sailing to Cape Cross, and bringing back the body. This spot (situated, it is supposed, in Massachusetts Bay) he never reached; and, indeed, escaped total shipwreck only by being driven back to the coast of Greenland.

In 1006, a new impulse was given to maritime enterprise, among the Northmen, by the arrival, at Eric'sfiord, of two ships carrying Thorfinn, a wealthy and influential person of royal descent, and Snorre Thorbrandson, also a distinguished person. Eric and Thorstein were now dead, and the two visitors seem to have been entrusted with the management of affairs during the winter. During the festivities of Christmas, Thorfinn became enamoured with Gudrida, widow of Thorstein, and soon after married her. Through her entreaties, he fitted out an expedition to visit Vinland, consisting of three ships and a hundred and forty men. He sailed in 1007, accompanied by his wife, his companion, Snorre, and a number of other distinguished persons, male and female.

After a prosperous voyage, during which Thorfinn coasted along the Continent for a number of miles, a landing was effected on an island which received the name of Straum Ey, (Stream Island.) So great was the number of birds at this place, that it was impossible to walk without crushing their nests. After passing the winter at this place, Thorhall, one of the leaders, was sent with eight men to search for Vinland; but, meeting with westerly winds, they were driven across the Atlantic to Ireland, and made prisoners. Ignorant of their fate, Thorfinn set out with the remainder of the adventurers and reached their destination in safety.

The country was found to correspond to the description of it given by former navigators. Wild wheat covered the fields, and grapes the hills. The lake was easily found, near which the former settlement had been made, and here, after erecting additional dwellings, the company passed the winter. Numbers of the natives visited them in canoes, carrying on a system of barter extremely profitable to the Northmen. In a few months, this friendly intercourse was



THE NORTHMEN TRADING WITH THE INDIANS.

interrupted, and skirmishes ensued, in which several of the settlers were killed. This event discouraged them, and they determined to abandon all ideas of founding a permanent colony. Sailing to Straum Ey, there they passed the winter; and at the opening of the following year (1011) returned to Greenland. During their three years' residence, the wife of Thorfinn presented him with a son—probably the first descendant of Europeans ever born in America. He afterwards became a person of great distinction, and his descendants, traced by undoubted genealogy down to the present time, have included some of the most distinguished persons of Northern Europe. Members of every profession, law, politics, letters, and the church, have been proud to trace their lineage to him; and, among these, we have in our century a Bishop of Iceland, Chief Justice Stevenson, of the same country, three professors in the Copenhagen University, and the great sculptor Bertel Thorwaldsen.

Straum Ey is supposed by the Danish historians to be Martha's Vineyard, and Straum-fiord, the body of water named by Thorfinn, is said to be Buzzard's Bay.

In the same year that Thorfinn's colony was abandoned, (1011,) a female, named Freydisa, who had been with him, visited America in one ship, with a number of men and women, for the purpose of forming a settlement. Her object seems to have been defeated by dissensions among her followers. Some years after, (1026,) an Icelander, named Gudleif, while sailing for Dublin, was driven out of his course, and landed, as is supposed, in America. Being carried by his captors into the interior, they met an old man, who, after addressing them in their own language, and inquiring after several Icelanders, presented them with a sword, requesting that it might be carried to one Thurida, a sister to Snorre Gode, with a word for her son. He is supposed to have been the bard Biorne, formerly a lover of that lady, and of whom nothing had been heard since 998.

All idea of forming a permanent settlement in Vinland was now abandoned by the Northmen; and, in their subsequent wars with England and France, the very remembrance of their discoveries was obliterated. It was reserved for the power of one master-mind to unite the Old and New Worlds, and to open the path to glory in the western wilds, brighter and nobler than the nations of the East.



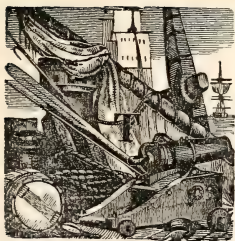
BIO NE'S PRESENTS.



COLUMBUS

CHAPTER II.

DISCOVERY OF COLUMBUS.



THE history of the world does not afford an epoch more important to mankind than the discovery of America by Columbus, in 1492. It formed, as is well known, an era that gave a new and more adventurous direction to the ambition of European nations; and while the consequent passion of enterprise sent bold spirits to the vast regions of the newly-found world,—and simultaneously, by an almost equally great discovery,—that of sailing round Africa to the Eastern Indies,—fresh explorations enriched the sciences,—and, from that period, geography, astronomy, and navigation became more practically and more usefully known.

A most remarkable coincidence of events distinguishes the period.

which followed the application of the magnet to the mariner's compass, and the age which immediately commenced after the discovery of America and of the East Indies by sea. During this epoch, gunpowder and the art of printing were both invented; ancient learning, the arts and sciences, were revived; a powerful and successful resistance to the papal authority was declared; and the balance of power among princes became a leading policy in Europe.

To Portugal and to her sovereign, King John I., is due the honour of being the first nation and prince in Europe to undertake great discoveries. Some adventurers from Spain fell in previously with the Canaries; but this discovery was not considered a national enterprise; although the pope, in his assumed divine right to all the countries in the world, granted, in perpetuity, these Fortunate Islands, as they were called, with their infidel inhabitants as slaves, to Louis de la Cerda, of the royal family of Castile, who transferred them afterwards to a Norman baron.

In the year 1412, John I., King of Portugal, commenced those voyages along the coasts of Africa, directed by his son, Prince Henry, which, in 1419, discovered Madeira, and, in 1433, extended so far south as to double Cape Boyador, and to enter the dreaded torrid zone. Before the death of Prince Henry, in 1463, the Azores and Cape de Verd Islands were discovered by the Portuguese. From this period until the accession of John II., the nephew of Prince Henry, in 1481, the spirit of maritime discovery languished in Portugal, although a trade with the previously found countries was carried on without interruption. In 1484, John II. fitted out a powerful fleet, and declared himself the patron of navigation and discovery. It was in his service that Columbus completed that knowledge and acquired that distinction which prepared him for engaging in the voyages that render his name immortal. The Portuguese, after advancing south and forming settlements along the coast of Africa, reached the Cape of Good Hope; and a voyage round it was accomplished by Vasco de Gama, in the year 1497, five years after the discovery of America by Columbus.

The mind of this extraordinary man had, from an early period, been occupied in preparing the design of the sublime enterprise that was destined to extend the limits to which ignorance and superstition had confined the boundaries of the earth. He, as a dutiful citizen, made his first proposal to sail westward to the Indies to Genoa. His offer was rejected as that of a visionary adventurer. He felt

the consolation arising from having discharged a patriotic obligation, but was mortified, but not disheartened, that his native country should have derided a project, which he foresaw would extend fame to the nation under whose auspices it should be undertaken.

He was received favourably by John II. of Portugal, where the intelligence, and nautical skill, and boldness of Columbus were well known, and where he had married the daughter of Perestrello, the discoverer of Madeira. But Ortis, the Bishop of Ceuta, not only thwarted his views and derided them as chimerical, but meanly attempted to deprive him of the honour by sending, in the direction proposed by Columbus, a vessel under a Portuguese pilot, in order to attempt and secure the glory of the discovery. The pilot had neither the genius nor the fortitude which are necessary to accomplish bold enterprises. He consequently failed in the treacherous attempt.

Columbus applied, soon afterwards, to the government of France. But neither the prince nor the people had, at that period, been ani-



FRANCIS I.

mated by the spirit of maritime discovery. The chivalrous and generous Francis I. had not ascended the throne; and it was destined that the most brilliant project ever made, was rejected:—a project which finally succeeded under the patronage of a royal family which became, in consequence, the most powerful rival that ever mortified the predecessors of the House of Bourbon.

Columbus then sent his brother Bartholomew to the court of Henry VII. of England. That distrustful prince, after one bold and successful attempt to obtain the crown, never encouraged great, if in his mind the least hazardous or doubtful, enterprises. He, however, by slight but not conclusive promises, detained Bartholomew in England for six years; and the latter finally arranged with the king for the employment of his brother Christopher in the proposed voyage of discovery.

In the mean time, Columbus, disgusted with the meanness and exasperated by the treachery of Ortis, proceeded with his charts and proposals to the court of Ferdinand and Isabella. For eight years he exercised his address, his patience, his interest, and his



HENRY VII.

abilities at this court, so remarkable then and long after for the tardiness of its decisions. It is a trite remark, that projectors are enthusiasts. It is fortunate that this accusation is true as regards the projectors of arduous undertakings; otherwise, the spirit and the health of Columbus would have been subdued before he accomplished his great mission. He had to endure the most fatiguing delays, and to hear pronounced against him presumptuous and insulting judgments by the ignorant and by the bigoted. To the honour of Isabella and her sex, and at her own expense, we are bound to attribute, in justice, the final success of Columbus: who, after displaying, during eight years, in his whole character and conduct, an assiduity, a firmness and resolve of mind, never sufficiently to be applauded and imitated, sailed from Cadiz on the 3d of August, 1492, on the most daring enterprise ever undertaken by man.

He proceeded on this voyage without any chart to guide him,—with no acquaintance with the currents, the winds, or climates of unknown seas and lands,—and in ignorance of the magnetic variation. His own genius and instinctive judgment,—his confidence in



THE SAILING OF COLUMBUS.

the spherical system of the world, although the law of gravity was undiscovered,—his knowledge of the human heart,—and his address in commanding and winning those placed under his authority, enabled him to prevail over a crew which at length became impatient, and to advance, regardless of imaginary as well as real dangers, until he discovered the island of San Salvador, on October 12, 1492.



COLUMBUS, on his first voyage, discovered San Salvador, Hayti, and Cuba. He opened a friendly intercourse with the inhabitants; obtained permission to build a fort at a place which he called Navidad, on the north side of Hayti, where

he left a colony of thirty men, with various stores. He then returned towards Europe with gold, cotton, &c., and accompanied by some of the natives. He experienced a boisterous, dangerous, and tedious passage. He put into the port of Lisbon with his vessels

crippled. John II. received him with honourable respect, although mortified at having lost for ever, by rejecting the offer formerly made by Columbus, the glory of discovering a world which was now to be assigned to Spain. Columbus proceeded to the court of Ferdinand and Isabella, where he was received with as much distinction as was consistent with the cold and formal etiquette of the royal household of Spain.

It is not within our present design to enter on the history of this memorable achievement. The voyages of Columbus have often been, and especially by a distinguished American, well narrated.

The merit of discovering the Continent of the New World was attempted to be denied to Columbus; and so far with success, that an able, unprincipled adventurer, with whom Fonseca, an unforgiving bishop, conspired, obtained by forgery and mis-statements the credit, for some time, of being the original discoverer, and had, in consequence, his name given to all the vast regions of the West.

Columbus reached the Continent of America, in August, 1498; whereas Alonzo Ojeda (one of the former companions of Columbus) and Amerigo Vespucci did not sail on their first voyage from Cadiz, until the 20th of May, 1499. Amerigo made skilful use of the admiral's maps and charts, which the Bishop of Burgos put, from hatred to Columbus, into his hands; and to whom the bishop gave also clandestine licenses, in contravention of the authority held by Columbus from Ferdinand and Isabella.



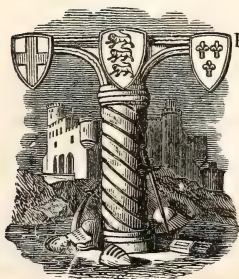
VESPUCCI



BALBOA.

CHAPTER III.

SPANISH DISCOVERIES AND CONQUESTS.



THE passion for discovering unknown countries, inspired by the success of the projects which the great mind of Columbus conceived and planned, and which his persevering character accomplished, became soon the mania of the age.

The principal man among the adventurers of that period was not Amerigo Vespucci, but Vincent Torres de Pinzon, who commanded one of the ships during the first voyage of Columbus. He was an able seaman, of liberal education, great courage, and of such ample fortune as to enable him to fit out four

stout ships at his own expense, with which he sailed, in January, 1500, on a voyage of discovery. He was the first Spanish subject who crossed the equinoctial line, and discovered the country of Santa Cruz, or the Holy Cross, and the river Maranon, or Amazon, in Brazil. He did not succeed in persuading the natives to trade with him. He returned north to the river Orinoco, which was discovered previously by Columbus. He soon after encountered a great storm, lost two of his ships before he reached Hayti, and finally arrived safely in Spain.

In 1501, Roderic de Bastidas fitted out, at his own expense, two ships; and, sailing from Cadiz, he discovered the country since then called Carthagera, and Magdalenna, and about a hundred leagues more of the coast of America than was known to Columbus. He opened an intercourse with the natives, brought some of them away, and proceeded to Hayti. So jealous were the Spaniards of each other, that Bastidas was imprisoned for the success of his enterprise.

St. Juan de Porto Rico, called Borriquen by the natives, was discovered by Columbus, in 1493, but neglected until 1509, when Juan Ponce de Leon, an enterprising, ambitious, and tyrannical nobleman, was informed that gold was abundant in that island. He crossed over from Hayti, and was received kindly by the principal cacique and by the natives; who showed him the streams which carried down great quantities of gold with the sands and washings from the mountains. On returning to Hayti, he managed to obtain a commission from Spain for conquering Porto Rico; and was, on landing, received by the natives, who believed the Spaniards to be immortal or they would, from their superior numbers, and with their poisoned arrows, as was their manner of defending themselves against the Caribbeans, probably, on the attempt of Ponce de Leon to subdue them, have driven back the Spaniards with great loss of life. The natives believed the Spaniards invulnerable, and they submitted to labour and to slavery, until a young Spaniard, on being carried across the ford of a river, on the shoulders of a native of more than usual boldness, was thrown off by the latter who, with the assistance of other natives, kept the Spaniard under water until he was drowned. They then dragged him ashore, and, doubting whether he was dead, the Indians cried out, asking pardon for the accident, during three days, until the body became so putrid as to remove all their doubts. The natives being now convinced that the Spaniards

could be killed, rose upon, and slaughtered more than a hundred of their oppressors. Ponce de Leon finally succeeded in reducing the whole island to his authority, and the natives to slavery in the mines; in which, and under other cruelties, they became extinct in a short period.

Diego Velasquez sailed from Hayti, in November, 1511, to conquer Cuba, which he accomplished, after committing the most horrible atrocities.

Attempts were made, at this period, to conquer and settle on the coast of Carthagena and Darien.

In 1509, John de Esquibel was sent by Diego Columbus from St. Domingo to form the first settlement in Jamaica, to which Alonzo de Ojeda laid a claim, and threatened to hang Esquibel.

During the following year, Ojeda and John de la Cosas, who had received a license to capture and take possession of Veragua, Carthagena, and other western countries, sailed from St. Domingo, landed on the Continent, and had several conflicts with the natives who were a bolder and more advanced race than the aborigines of Hayti. In one attack, seventy Spaniards were killed, and the remainder wounded with poisoned arrows. Ojeda and Cosas were saved by the arrival of another adventurer, Nicuessa, with four ships. The latter attacked the natives, burnt their town, in which they found a large store of gold, and taking a number of prisoners, sent them as slaves to work in the mines of Hayti. Among the commanders of these vessels was Francis Pizarro, whom Ojeda left at St. Sebastian, the place where he fixed upon for a settlement. The latter entered into an agreement with an outlaw, or pirate, to take him in his vessel to St. Domingo. The pirate's vessel was wrecked on the coast of Cuba, from whence they escaped to Jamaica in a canoe. The pirate was there apprehended and hanged. Pizarro was obliged to leave St. Sebastian, and escaped with a few men to Carthagena,—where Enciso, with two ships, arrived from St. Domingo. Pizarro and Enciso then proceeded to St. Sebastian, where they were shipwrecked, and, on landing, found the place entirely destroyed by the natives. They saved, from the wrecks, provisions, arms, and various articles, and proceeded to re-establish themselves at St. Sebastian, but they were reduced to great extremities by the attacks of the natives, and by the scanty supply of food.

One of the most remarkable men among the explorers of America accompanied this expedition. This person was Vasquez Nunez de



PIZARRO.

Balboa, a man of good family, who had formerly sailed with Bastidas on his voyage of discovery. He had obtained a settlement at Hayti, but having been accused of some excesses, for which he was to have been executed; he escaped by being concealed on board Enciso's ship in a bread cask. He ventured after a day to make his appearance. Enciso was enraged, as he had been warned not to take any one but those on his muster-roll, from Hayti; but the principal persons on board interceded for Nunez, and he was consequently protected. He was afterwards almost the only person at St. Sebastian who had not absolutely given himself up to despair. Enciso was rallied and encouraged by Nunez, by whose energy the stranded vessels were at last got afloat, and they sailed, according to the advice of Nunez, to where he had seen a town, when he had made the voyage with Bastidas. They, accordingly, steered for the river Darien, and found the place and country such as both were described by Nunez. They marched against the cacique and his people, attacked and put them to flight,—found n



BALBOA DISCOVERING THE PACIFIC OCEAN

the town, which was immediately deserted, abundance of provisions also cotton spun and unspun, household goods of various kinds, and more than the value of \$10,000 in gold plates. The success of this adventure being justly attributed to Nunez, his reputation became great. He deprived Enciso, who bore him no goodwill from the first, of all authority; gained, by his boldness, the confidence of the Spaniards, and founded the settlement of St. Maria. Nunez established his authority and retained his power in Darien, and the country then called Castell d'Oro, by gaining over, or defeating, the chiefs of the country, by buying, with the gold he sent to St. Domingo, the authorities there over to his interest, and by his superior fertility of resources under the most difficult circumstances.

In the middle of September, 1513, having been informed of rich and vast regions to the south-west; stretching along a great ocean which was not far distant, he departed from St. Maria, accompanied by the afterwards celebrated Francis Pizarro, on an expedition, in which, after some desperate conflicts with the natives, he advanced so

far, on the 25th of September, as to behold, lying broad in view the great Pacific Ocean.

Nunez possessed the manner and ability of making himself beloved by his companions and followers. He was kind to the sick and the wounded, and shared the same fatigues and the same food as the humblest soldier. Before reaching the shores of the Pacific, he was opposed by Chiapes, the cacique of the country; who, however, was soon routed, and several of the natives killed by fire-arms, or torn by blood-hounds, those powerful auxiliaries of the Spanish conquerors in America. Nunez then made peace with them,—exchanging trinkets of little cost for gold to the value of four thousand pieces. Pizarro was then sent in advance to view the coast, and two others proceeded, on different routes, to find the nearest way from the heights to the sea. Nunez followed as soon as he could bring up the sick and wounded. On reaching the shore, he walked, with his armour on, into the sea, until the water reached his middle, and then performed solemnly the ceremony of taking possession in the name of the crown of Castile, of the ocean which he had discovered.

The Indians provided him with canoes; and, contrary to the advice of the natives, he proceeded with about eighty Spaniards, and Chiapes, the cacique, to cross a broad bay. Bad weather came on, and they barely escaped perishing on an island where several of their canoes were wrecked. On the following day they landed with great difficulty; being opposed by a cacique, whose people, however, were soon put to flight by the fire-arms and by the dogs of the Spaniards. Nunez soon brought this cacique to terms, and, for a few trinkets, received a considerable weight of gold, and a considerable number of large pearls of great value. The different caciques gave him the most flattering accounts of the vast countries which they described as extending to the south and south-west.

Before attempting further discoveries, he considered it prudent to return from the Pacific, and arrived at Santa Maria about the end of January, 1513, with the gold and pearls he had collected, and which he distributed fairly among the soldiers, deducting one-fifth for the king. He immediately sent the king's share of gold and pearls and all his own to Spain by an agent. On arriving at Seville, this agent applied first to the Bishop of Burgos, who was delighted at the sight of the gold and pearls. The bishop sent him to the king, and used



PEDRARIAS

al. his influence with Ferdinand, who entertained a strong aversion to Nunez de Balboa.

The old king, Ferdinand, who, unlike his deceased consort, Isabella, was always jealous of superior men, and especially of discoverers, did not on this occasion depart from his former base policy of supplanting the men who performed the most arduous undertakings, by the worst and most perfidious of his own creatures ; such as Ovanda and Bobadilla. The Bishop of Burgos had, previous to the arrival of the agent with treasures from Nunez, counselled the king to supersede him by one of the worst characters in Spain. Instead of confirming Nunez de Balboa in the government of the countries he discovered and annexed to the crown of Castile, Ferdinand appointed Pedro Arias d'Avila, or, as the Spanish writers, by contracting the first name, call him, Pedrarias, governor of Castell d'Oro. He was destitute of all the qualities which constitute a good man of great mind ; but haughty and ignorant, he was a master of the arts of oppression, violence and fraud. He left Spain in April, 1514, with a fleet of fifteen ships, two thousand troops, a bishop, John de Quevedo, and numerous greedy and rapacious followers of noble birth ; among others, Enciso, the enemy of Nunez. On their arrival at Santa Maria, they were received by Nunez with great

respect. They found the latter inhabiting a small house, in simple attire, living on the most frugal diet, and drinking no other liquid than water; while he had, at the same time, a strong fort with four hundred and fifty brave soldiers faithfully attached to him. That he was ambitious, and did severe things to obtain that power which he was never known to abuse, is admitted. His accounts and statements were clear, and he had annexed the country, between the Atlantic and the sea which he had discovered, to the crown of Spain. Pedrarias imprisoned this great man, and sent strong representations against him to Spain.

There were, however, some honest men among those brought over by Pedrarias, who sent a true account of Nunez to the king; and the latter formally expressed his approbation of the conduct of the late governor, and appointed him lord-lieutenant of the countries of the South Seas; directing also that Pedrarias should act by the advice of his predecessor.

On the king's letters arriving from Spain, they were suppressed by Pedrarias; who, in the mean time, by his perfidy and cruel exactions, brought the whole native population into hostility and revolt against the Spaniards. The Bishop Quevedo then interfered, Nunez was liberated, and, by his skill and demeanor, established tranquillity, and proceeded to the South Sea to build a town, which he in a short time accomplished, and was then recalled by Pedrarias. To the astonishment and horror of all the Spaniards, Nunez was charged with treason by Pedrarias, and publicly beheaded, on the charge that he had invaded the domains of the crown, merely by cutting down, without the governor's license, the trees used in erecting the town which he built.

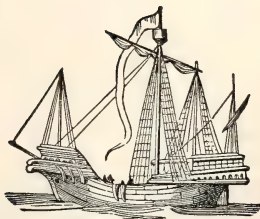
His execution was declared a murder by the Royal Audiencia of St. Domingo; yet Pedrarias, whom the Bishop of Chiapa described as the most wicked monster who was ever sent to America, continued for many years, by the king's will, to exercise his cruelty and injustice.

Thus perished Nunez de Balboa, in 1517, at the age of forty-two years, for having served his king with more fidelity than any of the Spanish conquerors; of whom, if we may except Cortez, he was the ablest; and whose character stands far higher than any of those who added new territories to the dominions of Spain.

Pedrarias, after the murder of Nunez, removed to Panama, where he erected a palace. In his hostilities and cruelties to the caciques

and the native tribes, he caused great destruction of life ; and so ill-judged and planned were his enterprises, that, in subduing one cacique, Uracca of the mountains, more Spanish lives were lost than during the whole conquest of Mexico by Cortes.

The only important conquest made under Pedrarias, was by Francis Hernandez, of the territory of Nicaragua, to which the governor immediately repaired to take possession of for himself. Jealous of Hernandez, as he was of Nunez, he charged the former with a design to revolt ; which the latter, confident in his innocence, boldly denied. Pedrarias immediately ordered him to be executed : power was to be upheld by the immediate death, according to the maxim of this tyrant, of conquerors who were suspected. For this murder, equally barbarous as that of Nunez, Pedrarias was not called to account.



SHIP OF THE TIME OF BALECA.



THE LANDING OF CORTES.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CONQUEST OF MEXICO.

THE portion of the New World earliest colonized by the Spaniards was the island of St. Domingo, Hayti, or Hispaniola, discovered by Columbus, in his first voyage, in the year 1492. For nearly twenty years, this island was the only colony of importance held by the Spaniards in the New World; here alone did they occupy lands, build towns, and found a regular commonwealth. Cuba, although the second of the islands discovered by Columbus, remained long uncolonized; indeed, it was not till the year 1509, that it was circumnavigated and ascertained to be an island. At length, as we have already seen, it was conquered and colonized by Velasquez. Ambitious of sharing the glory to be derived from the discovery of new countries, Velasquez fitted out one or two expeditions, which he despatched westward, to explore the seas in that direction. In one of these expeditions which set out in 1517, commanded by a rich colonist called Cordova, the peninsula of Yucatan was discovered, and the existence of a large and rich country

called Culua or Mexico ascertained. Elated with this discovery, Velasquez fitted out another expedition under his nephew, Juan de Grijalva, who, leaving Cuba in April, 1518, spent five months in cruising along the newly discovered coast, and trafficking with the natives for gold trinkets and cotton cloths, very skilfully manufactured. The result of this expedition was the importation to Cuba of gold and jewels to the amount of twenty thousand pesos, or upwards of £50,000.

Delighted with his success, Velasquez wrote home to Spain announcing his discovery, and petitioning for authority from the king to conquer and colonize the country which his subordinates, Cordova and Grijalva, had discovered. Without waiting, however, for a reply to his petition, he commenced fitting out a much larger squadron than either of the two former; and this he placed under the command of Hernando Cortes, a respectable Spanish hidalgo, or gentleman, residing in the island, and who was at this time thirty years of age.

Cortes proceeded with the greatest activity in making his preparations. "Borrowing money for the purpose," says Bernal Diaz, the gossiping chronicler of the Conquest, "he caused to be made a standard of gold and velvet, with the royal arms and a cross embroidered thereon, and a Latin motto, the meaning of which was, 'Brothers, follow this holy cross with true faith, for under it we shall conquer.' It was proclaimed by beat of drum and sound of trumpet, that all such as entered the service in the present expedition should have their shares of what gold was obtained, and grants of land as soon as the conquest was effected. The proclamation was no sooner made than, by general inclination as well as the private influence of Cortes, volunteers offered themselves everywhere. Nothing was to be seen or spoken of but selling lands to purchase arms and horses, quilting coats of mail, making bread, and salting pork for sea-store. Above three hundred of us assembled in the town of St. Jago." These preparations were likely to be interrupted. Velasquez, ruminating the probable consequences of the expedition, had begun to repent of having appointed Cortes to the command, and was secretly plotting his removal. Cortes, perceiving these symptoms, determined to outwit his patron. Accordingly, on the night of the 18th of November, 1518—having warned all the captains, masters, pilots, and soldiers, to be on board, and having shipped all the stores that had been collected—Cortes set sail from the port of St. Jago, with

out announcing his intention to Velasquez, resolving to stop at some of the more westerly ports of the island for the purpose of completing his preparations, where he would be beyond the reach of the governor. Nothing could exceed the rage of Velasquez at the sudden departure of Cortes. He wrote to the commandants of two towns at which he learned that the fleet had put in for recruits and provisions, to seize Cortes, and send him back; but such was the popularity of Cortes, that both were afraid to make the attempt.

At last all was ready, and Cortes finally set sail from Cuba on the 18th of February, 1519. The expedition, which consisted of eleven vessels, most of them small, and without decks, met with no disaster at sea, but arrived safely at the island of Cozumel, off the coast of Yucatan, after a few days' sail. Here Cortes landed to review his troops. They consisted of five hundred and fifty-three soldiers, not including the mariners, who amounted to a hundred and ten. They possessed sixteen horses, some of them not very serviceable, ten brass field-pieces, four smaller pieces, called falconets, and thirty-two cross-bows; the majority of the soldiers being armed with ordinary steel weapons. Attending on the army were about two hundred Cuba Indians, and some Indian women. And as religion in those days sanctioned military conquest, there were in addition two clergymen—Juan Diaz and Bartholomew de Olmedo.

For nine or ten days, the Spaniards remained at Cozumel, making acquaintance with the natives, who were very friendly. Here Cortes, whose zeal for the Catholic religion was one of the strongest of his feelings, made it one of his first concerns to argue with the natives, through an interpreter, on the point of their religion. He even went so far as to demolish their idols before their eyes, and erect an altar to the Virgin on the spot where they had stood. The natives were horror-struck, and seemed at first ready to fall upon the Spaniards, but at length they acquiesced.

While at Cozumel, Cortes had the good fortune to pick up a Spaniard, who, having been wrecked in his passage from Darien to Hispaniola in the year 1511, had for seven years been detained as a slave among the Indians of Yucatan. The name of this poor man was Jeromino de Aguilar; he had been educated for the church; and as he could speak the language of Yucatan, his services as an interpreter were likely to be very valuable. On the 4th of March, 1519, the fleet, consisting of eleven vessels, commanded respectively by Cortes, Pedro de Alvarado, Alonzo Puerto Carrero, Francisco de



OLMEDO.

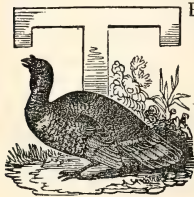
Montejo, Christoval de Olid, Diego de Ordaz, Velasquez de Leon, Juan de Escalante, Francisco de Morla, Escobar, and Gines Nortes, set sail from Cozumel, and on the 13th it anchored at the mouth of the river Tobasco or Grijalva, flowing into the south of the Bay of Campeachy.

The expedition had now reached the scene of active operations; it had arrived on the coast of the American continent. Cortes does not appear to have been naturally a bloodily disposed man. He was only what a perverted education and the vices of his time had made him—a man full of mighty notions of the Spanish authority; of its right to take, by foul or fair means, any country it liked; and not without an excuse from religion to rob and kill the unfortunate natives who dared to defend their territories.

We have now, therefore, to record the beginning of a most unjust and merciless war of aggression. As Cortes, with his followers, sailed up the river as far as Tabasco, he everywhere observed the natives preparing to repel his attack, and at length he was brought into collision with them—of course, overpowering them by force of arms,

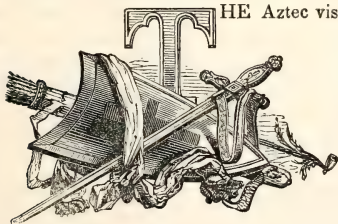
with immense slaughter. On reaching Tabasco, his soldiers fought their way through dense masses of Indians, who discharged among them perfect clouds of arrows and stones. Pushing through the streets, which were lined with houses, some of mud, and some of stone, the victors reached a large open square in the centre, where temples of large size were erected. Here the troops were drawn up; and Cortes, advancing to a large ceiba tree, which grew in the middle, gave it three slashes with his sword, and took possession of the city and country in the name of his royal master, Don Carlos, King of Castile.

Next day, another great battle was fought between the Spaniards and the Tabascans on the plain of Ceutla, a few miles distant from the city. For an hour, the Spanish fought in the midst of an ocean of enemies, battling on all sides, beating one wave back only that another might advance—a little islet encircled by the savage breakers. At length, with the assistance of their horse—a terrible sight to the Indians—the Spaniards were victorious. The spirit of the Tabascans was now completely subdued.



THEIR chiefs came to the camp of Cortes with faces and gestures expressive of contrition, and brought him presents of fowls, fish, maize, and numerous gold toys representing many kinds of animals in miniature. For the horses, they brought a feast of turkeys and roses! They also gave Cortes twenty Indian girls to attend the army. To his inquiries respecting the country whence they obtained the gold, they replied by repetitions of the words "Culua" and "Mexico," and pointing to the west. Having obtained all the information the Tabascans could give him, Cortes resolved to proceed on his voyage. Accordingly, after a solemn mass, which the Indians attended, the armament left Tabasco, and, after a short sail, arrived off the coast of St. Juan de Ulloa, the site of the modern Vera Cruz. It was on Holy Thursday, (April 20,) in the year 1519, that they arrived at the port of St. Juan de Ulloa, the extreme eastern province of the Mexican dominions, properly so called. The royal flag was floating from the mast of Cortes's ship. The Spaniards could see the beach crowded with natives, who had come down to gaze at the strange "water-houses," of which they had formerly seen specimens. At length, a light pirogue filled with natives, some of them evidently

men of rank, pushed off from the shore and steered for the ship of Cortes. The Indians went on board without any symptoms of fear, and, what was more striking, with an air of ease and perfect good-breeding. They spoke a different language from that of the inhabitants of Cozumel or the Tabascans—a language, too, which Aguilar did not understand. Fortunately, one of the twenty Indian girls presented by the Tabascans to the Spaniards, was a Mexican by birth. This girl, whose Spanish name of Donna Marina is imperishably associated with the history of the Conquest of Mexico, was the daughter of a chief, but, by a singular course of events, had become a slave in Tabasco. She had already attracted attention by her beauty, sweetness, and gentleness, and she had been mentioned to Cortes. Her services now became valuable. The Mexican was her native language; but, by her residence in Tabasco, she had acquired the Tabascan, which language was also familiar to Aguilar. Interpreting, therefore, what the Mexicans said into Tabascan to Aguilar, Aguilar, in turn, interpreted the Tabascan into Spanish; and thus, though somewhat circuitously, Cortes could hold communication with his visitors.



THE Aztec visitors who came on board the ship of Cortes, informed him that they were instructed by the governor of the province to ask what he wanted on their coasts, and to promise that whatever he required should be supplied. Cortes replied that his object was to make the acquaintance of the people of those countries, and that he would do them no injury. He then presented them with some beads of cut glass, and after an entertainment of wine, they took their departure, promising that Teuthlille, the governor of the province under their great emperor, should visit him the next day.

Next day, Friday, the 21st of April, 1519, Cortes landed with his troops, and had an interview with Teuthlille, who received the visitors with suspicion; and this feeling was not lessened by the parade of mounted dragoons and firing of guns, with which the Spanish commander thought fit to astonish him and the other natives. Sketches were taken of the appearance of the strangers, in

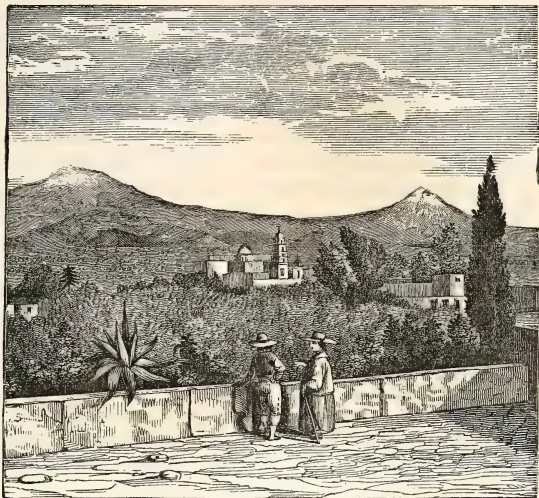


INDIAN HUT IN THE TIERRA CALIENTE.

order to be sent to Montezuma, the king of the country, who was likewise to be informed that the white men, who had arrived on his coast, desired to be allowed to come and see him in his capital.

Here we pause to present a short account of the Mexican empire, in which Cortes had landed; also of the character and government of this monarch, Montezuma, whom the Spaniards expected soon to be permitted to visit.

If a traveller, landing on that part of the coast of the Mexican gulf where Cortes and his Spaniards landed three hundred and thirty years ago, were to proceed westward, across the Continent, he would pass successively through three regions or climates. First, he would pass through the *tierra caliente*, or hot region, distinguished by all the features of the tropics—their luxuriant vegetation, their occasional sandy deserts, and their unhealthiness at particular seasons. After sixty miles of travel through this *tierra caliente*, he would enter the *tierra templada*, or temperate region, where the products of the soil are such as belong to the most genial European countries. Ascending through it, the traveller at last leaves wheat-fields beneath him, and plunges into forests of pine, indicating his



VOLCANIC MOUNTAINS, AS SEEN FROM TACUBAYA.

entrance into the *tierra fria*, or cold region, where the sleety blasts from the mountains penetrate the very bones. This *tierra fria* constitutes the summits of part of the great mountain range of the Andes, which traverses the whole American continent. Fortunately, however, at this point the Andes do not attain their greatest elevation. Instead of rising, as in some other parts of their range, in a huge perpendicular wall or ridge, they here flatten and widen out, so as to constitute a vast plateau, or table-land, six or seven thousand feet above the level of the sea. On this immense sheet of table-land, stretching for hundreds of miles, the inhabitants, though living within the tropics, enjoy a climate equal to that of the south of Italy; while their proximity to the extremes both of heat and cold, enables them to procure, without much labour, the luxuries of many lands. Across the table-land there stretches, from east to west, a chain of volcanic peaks, some of which are of immense height, and covered perpetually with snow.

This table-land was called, by the ancient Mexicans, the plain of Anahua. Near its centre is a valley of an oval form, about

two hundred miles in circumference, surrounded by a rampart of porphyritic rock, and overspread for about a tenth part of its surface by five distinct lakes or sheets of water. This is the celebrated Valley of Mexico—called a valley only by comparison with the mountains which surround it, for it is seven thousand feet above the level of the sea. Round the margins of the five lakes once stood numerous cities, the relics of which are yet visible; and on an islet in the middle of the largest lake, stood the great city of Mexico, or Tenochtitlan, the capital of the empire which the Spaniards were now invading, and the residence of the Mexican emperor, Montezuma.

The origin of the Mexicans is a question of great obscurity—a part of the more extensive question of the manner in which America was peopled. According to Mr. Prescott, the latest and one of the best authorities on the subject, the plains of Anahuac were overrun, previous to the discovery of America, by several successive races from the north-west of the Continent where it approaches Asia. Thus, in the thirteenth century, the great table-land of Central America was inhabited by a number of races and sub-races, all originally of the same stock, but differing from each other greatly in character and degree of civilization, and engaged in mutual hostilities. The cities of these different races were scattered over the plateau, principally in the neighbourhood of the five lakes. Tezcuco, on the eastern bank of the greatest of the lakes, was the capital of the Acolhuans; and the Tenochtitlan, or Mexico, founded in 1325, on an island in the same lake, was the capital of the Aztecs.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the dominant race in the plains of Anahuac was the Acolhuans, or Tezcucans, represented as a people of mild and polished manners, skilled in the elegant arts, and possessing literary habits and tastes—the Athenians, if we may so call them, of the New World. The most celebrated of the Tezcucan sovereigns was Nezahualcoyotl, who reigned early in the fifteenth century. By this prince a revolution was effected in the political state of the valley of Anahuac. He procured the formation of a confederacy between Tezcuco and the two neighbouring friendly cities of Mexico and Tlacopan, by which they bound themselves severally to assist each other when attacked, and to carry on wars conjointly. In this strange alliance, Tezcuco was the principal member, as being confessedly the most powerful state; Mexico stood next; and lastly Tlacopan, as being inferior to the other two

Nezahualcoyotl died in 1470, and was succeeded on the Tezcucan throne by his son Nezahualpilli. During his reign the Tezcucans fell from their position as the first member of the triple confederacy which his father had formed, and gave place to the Aztecs or Mexicans. These Aztecs had been gradually growing in consequence since their first arrival in the valley. Decidedly inferior to the Tezcucans in culture, and professing a much more bloody and impure worship, they excelled them in certain qualities, and possessed, on the whole, a firmer and more compact character. If the Tezcucans were the Greeks, the Aztecs were the Romans of the New World. Under a series of able princes they had increased in importance, till now, in the reign of Nezahualpilli, they were the rivals of their allies, the Tezcucans, for the sovereignty of Anahuac.

In the year 1502, a vacancy occurred in the throne of Tenochtitlan, or Mexico. The election fell on Montezuma II., the nephew of the deceased monarch, a young man who had already distinguished himself as a soldier and a priest or sage, and who was noted as his name—Montezuma (sorrowful man)—implied, for a certain gravity and sad severity of manner. The first years of Montezuma's reign were spent in war. Carrying his victorious arms as far as Nicaragua and Honduras in the south, and to the shores of the Mexican gulf in the east, he extended the sovereignty of the triple confederacy, of which he was a member, over an immense extent of territory. Distant provinces he compelled to pay him tribute; and the wealth of Anahuac flowed from all directions towards the Valley of Mexico. Haughty and severe in his disposition, and magnificent in his tastes, he ruled like an Oriental despot over the provinces which he had conquered; and the least attempt at rebellion was fearfully punished, captives being dragged in hundreds to the capital to be slaughtered on the stone of human sacrifice in the great war temple.* Nor did Montezuma's own natural-born subjects stand less in dread of him. Wise, liberal, and even generous in his government, his inflexible and relentless justice, and his lordly notions of his own dignity, made him an object less of affection than of awe and reverence. In his presence, his nobles spoke in whispers; in his palace he was served with a slavish homage; and when he appeared in public, his subjects veiled their faces as un-

* Besides the ordinary sacrifice in which the victim's heart was cut out and laid on the altar, there was a gladiatorial sacrifice, where the victim contended with a succession of warriors before being offered up.



GLADIATORIAL SACRIFICE

worthy to gaze upon his person. The death of Nezahualpilli, in 1516, made him absolute sovereign in Anahuac. On the death of that king, two of his sons, Cacama and Ixtlilxochitl, contended for the throne of Tezcuco. Montezuma sided with Cacama; and the dispute was at length ended by compromise between the two brothers, by which the kingdom was divided into two parts—Cacama obtaining the southern half with the city of Tezcuco, and Ixtlilxochitl the northern half.

Thus, at the period of the arrival of the Spaniards, Montezuma was absolute sovereign of nearly the whole of that portion of Central America which lies between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Ocean—the kings of Tezcuco and Tlacopan being nominally his confederates and counsellors, according to the ancient treaty of alliance between the three states, but in reality his dependents. The spot where Cortes had landed was in one of the maritime provinces of Montezuma's dominion.



IT is a singular but well-authenticated fact, that, when the Spaniards landed in America, a general expectation prevailed among the natives of the arrival of a mysterious race of white men from the East, who were to conquer the country. This was especially the case in Mexico. There was a tradition among the Mexicans that, some ages before the arrival of the Spaniards, and while yet the Aztec empire was in its infancy, there appeared in Anahuac a divine personage called Quetzalcoatl. He was a man of benevolent aspect, tall in stature, with a white complexion, long dark hair, and a flowing beard; and he came from the East. He resided in Anahuac for many years, teaching the Mexicans numerous arts and sciences, and reforming their manners; and under his care the country flourished and became happy. At length, some difference arose between him and the Mexicans, and they no longer paid respect to the words of the good Quetzalcoatl. He then announced to them that he was going to depart from their country. Proceeding eastward, delaying a little while at Cholula, a city which ever after was regarded as sacred, he arrived at the sea-shore. Embarking on board a little skiff, made of serpents' skins, he pushed out to sea, and, as the Mexicans strained their eyes after him, he disappeared in the distance, going, as it seemed, to the East. Before he departed, however, he delivered a prophecy, that at some future time, people of his race, with white complexions like his, would come from the East to conquer and possess the country.

The tradition of Quetzalcoatl's prophecy was rife among the natives of Anahuac, when Cortes arrived, and it was with a kind of religious awe that Montezuma and his people heard of the arrival of the white men in their "water-houses." Cortes and his men constituted, as we have seen, this body. Teuthlille's messengers, announcing their arrival, had already reached Montezuma; and he was now deliberating in what manner he should receive the strangers. In order to learn his decision, let us return to the Spaniards on the sea-coast.

The Spaniards, supplied by the natives with plenty of every thing which they required, were waiting the return of the messengers to Montezuma. After six days, they returned, accompanied by

Teuthlille. They bore with them a splendid present from Montezuma to the Spanish emperor. It consisted of loads of finely-wrought cotton, ornamented with featherwork; and a miscellaneous collection of jewels and articles of gold and silver, richly carved, of which the most attractive were two circular plates, as large as carriage-wheels, one of gold, valued at more than fifty thousand pounds, and intended to represent the sun; the other of silver, and representing the moon. As they gazed on the kingly present, the Spaniards could scarcely contain their raptures. The message which accompanied it, however, was less satisfactory. Montezuma was happy to hear of the existence of his brother, the King of Spain, and wished him to consider him as his friend; he could not, however, come to see the Spaniards, and it was too far for them to come and visit him. He, therefore, hoped they would depart, and carry his respects to his brother, their monarch.

To this Cortes, thanking Montezuma for his present, replied, that he could not leave the country without being able to say to his king that he had seen Montezuma with his own eyes; and the ambassadors again departed, carrying a sorry present from Cortes to Montezuma. After another interval of six days they returned, with another gift, little inferior in value to the former, and informed Cortes that the great Montezuma had received his present with satisfaction, but that, as to the interview, he could not permit any more to be said on the subject. Cortes, though greatly mortified, thanked them politely, and returned to Montezuma a second message to the same effect as the former, but couched in more decided language. The Mexicans withdrew in distrust, and ceased to barter with the Spaniards, or to bring them supplies.

Meanwhile, differences had been springing up among the Spaniards themselves, the partisans of Velasquez insisting that they ought now to return to Cuba, and that it was folly to think of founding a settlement. Pretending to yield to the clamours of these persons, Cortes issued orders for embarkation on the following day. Immediately the other party, consisting of the friends of Cortes, flocked to his tent, and implored him not to give up the enterprise which had been so successfully begun. This was precisely what Cortes wished. Accordingly, after some delay, he seemed to yield; and, revoking the order for embarkation, he announced his willingness to found a settlement in the name of the Spanish sovereign. Forthwith, the new city, although not a stone of it had yet been

raised, and the site had alone been determined on, was named *Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz*—"The Rich Town of the True Cross." Magistrates were immediately appointed in the king's name; the two captains, *Puerto Carrero* and *Montejo*, the latter a friend of *Velasquez*, being nominated *alcaldes*, and others to different offices. "Thus," says *Mr. Prescott*, "by a single stroke of the pen, the camp was transformed into a civil community."

At the first sitting of the new magistracy, *Cortes* appeared before it, with his cap doffed, and formally resigned his commission from *Velasquez* into its hands. He then withdrew; but after a short time was recalled, and informed that he had been unanimously appointed by them, in the king's name, "Captain-general and Chief Justice of the colony." Thus, by a clever stroke of policy, had *Cortes* shaken off all connection with *Velasquez*. He held his command now directly from the king, and could be superseded only by royal authority. The friends of *Velasquez* were at first furious with rage; but *Cortes* at length soothed them into acquiescence.

A little before the conclusion of these proceedings, an event of some consequence happened. This was the arrival in the Spanish camp of five Indians, differing in dress and language from the Mexicans. They informed *Cortes* that they were a deputation sent by the *Cacique* of *Cempoalla*, a city at a little distance on the sea-coast, the capital of the *Totonacs*, a nation which had been recently conquered by *Montezuma*, and was now groaning under his yoke. They were sent by their *cacique* to beg a visit of the Spaniards to *Cempoalla*. A light instantly flashed upon the mind of *Cortes*. He saw that *Montezuma's* empire was not so firmly compacted as he had supposed, and that it might be possible to divide it against itself, and so overthrow it. He, therefore, dismissed the ambassadors kindly, and promised a speedy visit to *Cempoalla*.

Accordingly, as soon as the disturbance which had arisen among his men was quelled, *Cortes* marched to *Cempoalla*, a city not rich, but prettily built, and containing a population, as it appeared, of about thirty thousand inhabitants. He was cordially received by the *cacique*, a large and very corpulent man. Remaining some time in *Cempoalla* and its neighbourhood, while the city of *Villa Rica* was being built, the Spaniards soon gained the reverence and good-will of the inhabitants, the *Totonacs*, who willingly submitted themselves to the dominion of the distant monarch *Don Carlos*, of whom the Spaniards told them. Here the Spaniards were horrified by the

symptoms of human sacrifice, which were perpetually visible in the temples—the blood-stained walls, and the fragments of human flesh which lay about; and, fired with religious enthusiasm, they resolved to put a stop to such practices by tearing down the idols. Cortes informed the cacique of his intention; but although the announcement filled him with speechless dismay, no opposition was offered, and the idols were broken in pieces, and burnt before the eyes of the Totonacs, while the priests went about shrieking like demons. “These priests,” we are told, “were dressed in long black mantles, like sheets with hoods: their robes reached to their feet. Their long hair was matted together with clotted blood; with some it reached to the waist, and with others to the feet: their ears were torn and cut, and they smelled horribly, as it were of sulphur and putrid flesh.”

The destruction of their idols did not alienate the Totonacs from the Spaniards; on the contrary, it raised their opinion of them, inasmuch as they saw the gods patient under the indignity. The intercourse of the two parties, therefore, continued; and by his frequent conversations with the cacique, Cortes gained greater insight every day into the condition of Montezuma's empire.

By this time, the town of Villa Rica had been nearly finished, and nothing remained to prevent the Spaniards from commencing their march into the interior. Before beginning it, however, Cortes deemed it advisable to send a report of his proceedings to Spain, to be laid before the king, knowing that Velasquez must have represented his conduct in very disadvantageous terms to the home government. Accordingly, Cortes drew up one letter, and the magistrates of the new colony another, detailing the whole of the incidents of the expedition down to the foundation of Villa Rica, and announcing that they were on the point of commencing their march into the heart of the country. To increase the effect of the letters, they were accompanied by nearly all the gold that had been collected, together with the splendid gifts of Montezuma, and such curiosities as might interest the learned of Spain. The business of carrying these letters to the king was intrusted to Montejo and Puerto Carrero, and they were instructed, above all, to endeavour to secure the appointment of Cortes as captain-general of the colony. On the 26th of July, 1519, the little ship set sail, freighted with a more precious cargo than had ever yet been packed within the timbers of a vessel from the New World. The pilot was instructed to make



MONTEZUMA.

direct for Spain, landing at no intermediate station, and especially avoiding Cuba.

The departure of this vessel seems to have raised thoughts of home in the minds of some of those who were left behind. A conspiracy was formed by some of the soldiers and sailors, along with the clergyman Diaz, to seize a vessel and return to Cuba. The conspiracy was discovered; two of the ringleaders were hanged, and the rest whipped or confined. Foreseeing, however, that such conspiracies would be constantly occurring, unless effectual means were taken to prevent them, Cortes came to the resolution, almost unparalleled in the annals of heroism, of destroying the ships which had brought him to Mexico. Accordingly, taking counsel with a few of his most attached followers, he procured a report from the pilots that the vessels were not seaworthy, and caused them to be broken in pieces and sunk, before the majority were aware of his design. When the Spaniards thus saw themselves shut up in a strange and populous country, with no means of retreat, their first impulse was one of rage and despair, and Cortes had nearly fallen a sacrifice. As he foresaw, however, the daring act had the effect of bracing his men to a pitch of resolution all but supernatural. Besides, by the destruction of the fleet, he obtained a reinforcement of a hundred and



CORTES.

ten men—the mariners, formerly employed in the ships, being now converted into soldiers, and very good ones, as it afterwards proved.

All being now ready, Cortes, leaving a considerable force as a garrison to the new settlement of Villa Rica, under the command of Juan de Escalante, set out from the territory of the Totonacs, on his march inland, on the 16th of August, 1519. His army consisted of four hundred Spaniards on foot, and fifteen horse, accompanied by thirteen hundred Cempoallan warriors, and a thousand *tamanes*, or Indian body slaves, furnished by the cacique of Cempoalla, who were to carry the heavy burdens and perform other laborious offices. Advancing through the *tierra caliente*, they began to ascend the mountains which separate it from the vast table-land of Anahuac. A few days' march across the *tierra templada* and the *tierra fria*, brought the Spaniards to the small mountain province of Tlascala, situated about half-way between the sea-coast and the Mexican valley. The Tlascalans were a brave and high-spirited people, of the same race as the Aztecs. They had refused, however, to submit to the empire of Montezuma, and were the only people in Anahuac who bade defiance to his power, preferring poverty and hardship in their mountain home to the loss of independence. The government of Tlascala was a kind of feudalism. Four lords, or caciques, held their courts in different quarters of the same city, independently of

each other, and yet mutually allied; and under these four chieftains the Tlascalan population, nobles and commons, were ranged as subjects. On the approach of the Spaniards, a consultation was held among the Tlascalan lords and their counsellors, as to how the strangers should be received; some being inclined to welcome them, in hopes of being able, by their assistance, to cope with Montezuma; others maintaining that the Spaniards were enemies and ought to be repulsed by all means. The latter opinion prevailed, and three desperate battles were fought between the Tlascalans, under the command of Xicotencatl, a brave and able young chief, the son of one of the four caciques, and the Spanish invaders. These engagements were far more serious than the battles which the Spaniards had fought with the Tabascans; and it required the utmost exertion of Castilian valour, directed by all the ability of Cortes, to gain the victory. But Indian courage against the flower of European chivalry—the *maquahuatl*, or war-club, dreadful instrument as it was, with its sharp, flinty blades, against muskets and artillery—coatings of war-paint, or doublets of featherwork, against Spanish mail—were a very unequal contest; and, as usual, the losses of the Spaniards were as nothing compared with the fierceness of the struggle. But how could the little army hope to advance through a country where such battles had to be fought at every step? If such were their reception by the Tlascalans, what might they not expect from the richer and more powerful Mexicans? Such were the reflections of the Spanish soldiery. The idea of their ever reaching Mexico, says Bernal Diaz, was treated as a jest by the whole army. Fortunately, when these murmurs were reaching their height, the Tlascalans submitted, and sent ambassadors to beg the friendship of the Spaniards; and on the 23d of September, 1519, the Spaniards entered the city of Tlascala, a large and populous town, which Cortes compared to Granada in Spain. Here they were cordially received by the four caciques, and especially by the elder Xicotencatl; and in a short time an intimacy sprung up between the Tlascalans and the invaders, and a treaty was concluded, by which the Tlascalans bound themselves to assist the Spaniards throughout the rest of their expedition. Here, as well as elsewhere, Cortes showed his zeal for the Catholic faith by endeavouring to convert the natives; and it is probable that the same scenes of violence would have taken place at Tlascala as at Cempoalla, had not the judicious father



MASSACRE AT CHOLULA.

Ulmedo interfered to temper the more headlong fanaticism of the general.

While in Tlascala, Cortes received various embassies from provinces in the neighbourhood anxious to secure his good will. About the same time, an embassy was received from Montezuma himself, entreating Cortes not to place any reliance upon the Tlascalans, whom he represented as treacherous barbarians; and now inviting him, in cordial terms, to visit his capital, pointing out the route through the city of Cholula as the most convenient. This route was accordingly adopted, and the Spaniards, accompanied by an army of six thousand Tlascalan warriors, advanced by it towards Mexico. Their approach gave great alarm, and Montezuma set on foot a scheme for their massacre at Cholula, which, however, was discovered by Cortes, who took a terrible vengeance on the sacred city. Montezuma, overawed, again made overtures of reconciliation, and promised the Spaniards an immense quantity of gold if they would advance no farther. This Cortes refused, and the Spanish army with

the Tlascalan warriors left Cholula and proceeded on their march, met everywhere by deputations from neighbouring towns, many of which were disaffected to the government of Montezuma. The route of the army lay between two gigantic volcanic mountains, and the march, for a day or two, was toilsome and bitterly cold. At last, "turning an angle of the sierra, they suddenly came on a view which more than compensated their toils. It was that of the Valley of Mexico; which, with its picturesque assemblage of water, woodland, and cultivated plains, its shining cities and shadowy hills, was spread out like some gay and gorgeous panorama before them. Stretching far away at their feet were seen noble forests of oak, sycamore, and cedar; beyond, yellow fields of maize, and the towering maguey, intermingled with orchards and blooming gardens. In the centre of the great basin were beheld the lakes, their borders thickly studded with towns and hamlets; and in the midst, like some Indian empress with her coronal of pearls, the fair city of Mexico, with her white towers and pyramidal temples, reposing, as it were, on the bosom of the waters—the far-famed 'Venice of the Aztecs.' "*"

Descending into the valley, the Spaniards halted at Ajotzinco, a town on the banks of the southernmost of the five lakes. Meanwhile, Montezuma was in an agony of indecision. When intelligence reached him that the Spaniards had actually descended into the valley, he saw that he must either face the strangers in the field of battle, or admit them into his capital. His brother, Cuiclahua, advised the former; but his nephew, Cacama, the young lord of Tezcucuo, was of the contrary opinion, and Montezuma, at length, sent him to meet the Spaniards, and welcome them to his dominions. Cacama accordingly set out in state, and arrived at Ajotzinco just as the Spaniards were about to leave it. When he came into the presence of Cortes, he said to him, "Malintzin, here am I and these lords come to attend you to your residence in our city, by order of the great Montezuma." Cortes embraced the prince, and presented him with some jewels. After a little while, Cacama took his leave and the Spaniards resumed their march. Travelling along the southern and western banks of Lake Chalco, they crossed the causeway which divides it from Lake Xochichalco, and advanced along the margin of the latter to the royal city of Iztapalapan, situated on the banks of the great Tezcucan Lake over against Mexico

* Prescott's Conquest of Mexico, vol. ii. p. 47.

To the eyes of the Spaniards, all that they saw in their journey seemed fairy-land.

It was on the 7th of November, 1519, that the Spaniards arrived at Iztapalapan; and here they spent the night, lodged in magnificent palaces built of stone, and the timber of which was cedar. From this position, the eye could sweep over the whole expanse of the Tezcucan Lake. Canoes of all sizes might be seen skimming along its surface, either near the middle or close to the banks, where the thick woods came down to the water's edge. Here also, moving slowly along the margin of the lake, might be seen a still stranger sight—the *chinampas*, or floating-gardens—little islands consisting of earth laid on rafts, planted with flowers, shrubs, and fruit-trees, containing a small hut or cottage in the centre, occupied by the proprietor, who, by means of a long pole, which he pushed against the bottom, could shift his little domain from place to place. But what fixed the eyes of the Spaniards above all else was the glittering spectacle which rose from the centre of the lake—the queenly city of Mexico, the goal of their hopes and wishes for many months past. In a few hours they would be within its precincts—a few hundred men shut up in the very heart of the great Mexican empire! What might be their fate there!

The islet on which Mexico was built was connected with the mainland by three distinct causeways of stone, constructed with incredible labour and skill across the lake, and intersected at intervals by drawbridges, through which canoes might pass and repass with ease. The causeway by which the Spaniards must pass, connected the island with the southern bank of the lake, about half-way across, to which it branched off into two lines, one leading to the city of Cojohuacan, the other meeting the mainland at a point not far from Iztapalapan, where the Spaniards were quartered. This causeway was about eight yards wide, and capable of accommodating ten or twelve horsemen riding abreast. It was divided, as before-mentioned, by several drawbridges; a circumstance which the Spaniards observed with no small alarm, for they saw that, by means of these drawbridges, their communication with the mainland could be completely cut off by the Mexicans.

On the morning of the 8th of November, 1519, the army left Iztapalapan, and advanced along the causeway towards the capital. First went Cortes with his small body of horse; next came the Spanish foot, amounting to not more than four hundred men; after



CORTÉS MARCHING INTO MEXICO.

them came the Indian *tamanes*, carrying the baggage; and last of all came the Tlascalcan warriors, to the number of about five thousand. As they moved along the causeway, the inhabitants of the city crowded in myriads to gaze at them, some finding standing-room on the causeway itself, others skimming along the lake in canoes, and clambering up the sides of the causeway. A little more than half-way across, and at a distance of a mile and a half from the city, the branch of the causeway on which the Spaniards were marching, was joined by the other branch; and here the causeway widened for a small space, and a fort or gateway was erected, called Fort of Xoloc. On arriving at the gateway, the army was met by a long procession of Aztec nobles, richly clad, who came to announce the approach of the emperor himself to welcome the Spaniards to his capital. Accordingly, when the remainder of the causeway had been almost traversed, and the van of the army was near the threshold of the city, a train was seen advancing along the great avenue. "Amidst a crowd of Indian nobles, preceded by three officers of state bearing golden wands, the Spaniards saw the royal palanquin of Montezuma, blazing with burnished gold. It was borne on the shoulders of nobles, and over it a canopy of gaudy featherwork, powdered with jewels, and fringed with silver, and was supported

by four attendants of the same rank. They were barefooted, and walked with a slow, measured pace, and with eyes bent on the ground. When the train had come within a convenient distance it halted; and Montezuma, descending from his litter, came forward, leaning on the arms of the lords of Tezcuco and Iztapalapan—the one his nephew, the other his brother. As the monarch advanced under the canopy, the obsequious attendants strewed the ground with cotton tapestry, that his imperial feet might not be contaminated by the rude soil. His subjects, of high and low degree, who lined the sides of the causeway, bent forward with their eyes fastened on the ground as he passed, and some of the humbler class prostrated themselves before him.”*

Cortes and the Mexican emperor now stood before each other. When Cortes was told that the great Montezuma approached, he dismounted from his horse, and advanced towards him with much respect. Montezuma bade him welcome, and Cortes replied with a suitable compliment. After some ceremonies, and the exchange of presents, Montezuma and his courtiers withdrew, the Spaniards following. Advancing into the city, wondering at all they saw—the long streets, the houses which, in the line along which they passed, belonged mostly to the noble and wealthy Mexicans, built of red stone, and surmounted with parapets or battlements; the canals which here and there intersected the streets, crossed by bridges; and the large open squares which occurred at intervals—the Spaniards were conducted to their quarters, situated in an immense square in the centre of the city, adjoining the temple of the great Mexican war-god. Montezuma was waiting to receive them; and the Spaniards were surprised and delighted with the princely generosity with which he supplied their wants.

Next day, Cortes paid a visit to Montezuma in his palace, attended by some of his principal officers. In the conversation which ensued, Cortes broached the topic of religion, and informed Montezuma “that we were all brothers, the children of Adam and Eve, and that as such, our emperor, lamenting the loss of souls in such numbers as those which were brought by the Mexican idols into everlasting flames, had sent us to apply a remedy thereto by putting an end to the worship of these false gods.” These remarks seemed to displease Montezuma, who, however, made a polite reply.

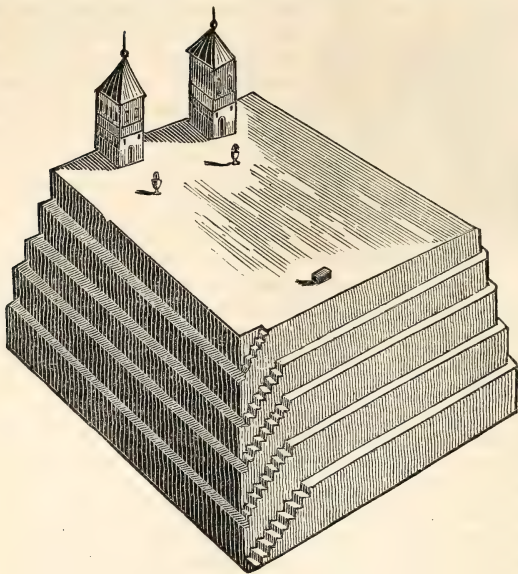
* Prescott's Conquest of Mexico, vol. ii. p. 67.



AY after day, the intercourse between Cortes and Montezuma was renewed; the Spanish soldiers also became gradually familiar with the Mexicans.

After describing Montezuma's household, including a great aviary or collection of birds, and a menagerie, the chronicler Bernal Diaz gives us an account of Cortes's first tour through the city, accompanied by Montezuma.

They first visited the great bazaar, or market, held in the western part of the city. "When we arrived there, we were astonished at the crowds of people, and the regularity which prevailed, as well as at the vast quantities of merchandise which those who attended us were assiduous in pointing out. Each kind had its particular place of sale, which was distinguished by a sign. The articles consisted of gold, silver, jewels, feathers, mantles, chocolate, skins dressed and undressed, sandals and other manufactures of the roots and fibres of nequen, and great numbers of male and female slaves, some of whom were fastened by the neck in collars to long poles. The meat market was stocked with fowls, game, and dogs. Vegetables, fruits, articles of food ready dressed, salt, bread, honey, and sweet pastry made in various ways, were also sold here. Other places in the square were appropriated to the sale of earthenware, wooden household furniture, such as tables and benches, firewood, paper, sweet canes filled with tobacco mixed with liquid amber, copper axes and working-tools, and wooden vessels highly painted. Numbers of women sold fish, and little loaves made of a certain mud which they find in the lake, and which resembles cheese. The makers of stone-blades were busily employed shaping them out of the rough material; and the merchants who dealt in gold had the metal in grains as it came from the mines, in transparent tubes, so that they could be reckoned; and the gold was valued at so many mantles, or so many xiquipils of cocoa, according to the size of the quills. The entire square was enclosed in piazzas, under which great quantities of grain were stored, and where were also shops for various kinds of goods. Courts of justice, where three judges sat to settle disputes which might arise in the market, occupied a part of the square, their under-officers, or policemen, being in the market inspecting the merchandise."



THE GREAT TEMPLE OF MEXICO

Proceeding from the market-place through various parts of the city, the Spaniards came to the great *teocalli*, or temple, in the neighbourhood of their own quarters. It was a huge pyramidal structure, consisting of five stories, narrowing above each other like the tubes of an extended spy-glass, (only square in shape,) so as to leave a clear pathway round the margin of each story. The ascent was by means of a stone stair, of a hundred and fourteen steps. Arrived at the summit, Cortes and his companions found it to be a large flat area, laid with stone; at one end of which they shuddered as they saw a block of jasper, which they were told was the stone on which the human victims were laid when the priests tore out their hearts to offer to their idols: at the other end was a tower of three stories, in which were the images of the two great Mexican deities Huitzilopochtli and Tezcatlipoca, and a variety of articles per

taining to their worship. "From the top of the temple," says Bernal Diaz, "we had a clear prospect of the three causeways by which Mexico communicated with the land, and we could now perceive that in this great city, and all the others of the neighbourhood which were built in the water, the houses stood separate from each other, communicating only by small drawbridges and by boats, and that they were built with terraced tops. The noise and bustle of the market-place below us could be heard almost a league off; and those who had been at Rome and Constantinople, said that, for convenience, regularity and population, they had never seen the like." At the request of Cortes, Montezuma, though with apparent reluctance, led the Spaniards into the sanctuary or tower where the gods were. "Here," says Diaz, "were two altars, highly adorned with richly-wrought timbers on the roof, and over the altars gigantic figures resembling very fat men. The one on the right was their war-god, with a great face and terrible eyes. This figure was entirely covered with gold and jewels, and his body bound with golden serpents; in his right hand he held a bow, and in his left a bundle of arrows. Before the idol was a pan of incense, with three hearts of human victims, which were burning, mixed with copal. The whole of that apartment, both walls and floor, was stained with human blood in such quantity as to cause a very offensive smell. On the left was the other great figure, with a countenance like a bear, and great shining eyes of the polished substance whereof their mirrors are made. The body of this idol was also covered with jewels. An offering lay before him of five human hearts. In this place was a drum of most enormous size, the head of which was made of the skins of large serpents: this instrument, when struck, resounded with a noise that could be heard to the distance of two leagues, and so doleful that it deserved to be named the music of the infernal regions."

This state of things could not last. Cortes, of course, had no intention of leaving Mexico, now that he had made good his quarters in it; but as it was not to be expected that Montezuma and his subjects would continue their friendly intercourse with him if they supposed that he purposed to remain, he saw the necessity of taking some decided step to secure himself and his men against any outbreak which might occur. The step which he resolved upon in his own mind was the seizure of Montezuma. By having him in their power, he would be able, he imagined, to maintain a control over

the whole population of the city—amounting, it was believed, to nearly three hundred thousand. Nor was a pretext wanting to give an appearance of justice to the daring act which they contemplated. Cortes had just received intelligence that a battle had been fought between the garrison which he had left at Villa Rica, and a body of Mexicans under the command of the Mexican governor of a province adjacent to the Spanish settlement. Although Cortes cared little for this occurrence, he resolved to avail himself of it for his purpose; so, after a night spent in prayer for the blessing of God on what he was about to do, he proceeded with five of his officers and the two interpreters, Donna Marina and Aguilar, to Montezuma's palace. The monarch, as usual, received him kindly; but when Cortes, after upbraiding him with being the cause of the attack on the Spanish garrison at Villa Rica, as well as with the attempt made by the Cholulans to arrest his own progress towards Mexico, informed him that he had come to take him prisoner, he could no longer contain himself, but gave full vent to his rage and astonishment. But the rage of an Indian prince was impotent against the stern resolution of the European general; and as the helpless monarch gazed on the unyielding countenances of his visitors, whose fingers were playing with the hilts of their swords, his anger changed into terror: he was seized with a fit of trembling, and the tears gushed into his eyes. Without any resistance, he was removed in his royal litter to the Spanish quarters, giving it out to his nobles and subjects that he went voluntarily, on a visit to Cortes, and desiring them to remain quiet.

Another degradation awaited the unhappy monarch. He was obliged to surrender the governor and three other chiefs, who had led the attack on the garrison of Villa Rica, and these were burned alive by the orders of Cortes, in front of Montezuma's palace, the emperor himself being kept in irons while the execution was going on.

All this took place within ten days of the arrival of the Spaniards in Mexico; and, for three or four months, Montezuma continued a prisoner in the Spanish quarters. Here he was attended with the most profound respect, Cortes himself never approaching him without taking off his cap, and punishing severely every attempt, on the part of any of his soldiers, to insult the royal captive. Such instances, however, were very rare; for the kindly demeanor of Montezuma, his gentleness under his misfortunes, and, above all, his



CORTES ORDERING MONTEZUMA TO BE CHAINED.

liberality to those about him, won the hearts of the Spaniards, and made him a general favourite. Nor did Montezuma make any attempt to regain his liberty. Attended by his officers as usual, he received deputations and transacted business; amused himself by various Mexican games, and appeared to delight in the society of some of the Spaniards, for whom he had contracted a particular partiality.

The Spanish general was now absolute in Anahuac; Montezuma acted under his instructions; and officers were sent out in different directions to survey the country, and ascertain the situation and extent of the gold and silver mines, as if all belonged to the King of Spain. Nor was the formal cession of the kingdom by Montezuma long delayed. Assembling all his nobles at the instigation of Cortes, the Indian monarch addressed them, desiring them to concur with him in surrendering their empire to the Spaniards, who were to come from the rising sun. “‘For eighteen years,’ he said, ‘that I have reigned, I have been a kind monarch to you, and you have been faithful subjects to me; indulge me, then, with this last act of obedience.’ The princes, with many sighs and tears, promised Montezuma, who was still more affected, that they would do whatever he desired. He then sent a message to Cortes, telling him that, on the ensuing day, he and his princes would tender their allegiance to his majesty, the emperor. This they accordingly did at the time appointed, in the presence of all the Spanish officers and many

of the soldiers, not one of whom could refrain from weeping on beholding the agitation and distress of the great and generous Montezuma."

Montezuma accompanied the surrender of his kingdom with the gift of an immense treasure, which he had concealed in an apartment within their quarters, desiring it to be sent to Spain, as tribute-money to King Charles from his vassal Montezuma. The sight of this treasure roused the avaricious passions of the Spanish soldiers, and they clamoured for a division of the wealth which had been collected since their entrance into Mexico. Cortes was obliged to yield to their demand. The whole wealth amassed during their residence in Mexico amounted, according to Mr. Prescott's calculation, to about one million four hundred thousand pounds sterling, including not only the gold cast into ingots, but also the various articles of jewelry, which were of too fine workmanship to be melted down. The mode of division was this:—First, his majesty's fifth was set aside; next, a fifth of the remainder was set aside for Cortes; after that, all the debts of the expedition were to be discharged, including the amount vested in the expedition by Velasquez, the payment of agents in Spain, &c.; then the losses incurred in the expedition were to be made good, including the expense of the ships sunk off Villa Rica, the price of the horses killed, &c.; and lastly, certain individuals in the army, as the clergymen and the captains, were to receive larger allowances than the rest. "By the time all these drafts were made," says Bernal Diaz, "what remained for each soldier was hardly worth stooping for;" in other words, instead of amounting to ten or fifteen thousand dollars, as they had expected, each soldier's share came only to about fifteen hundred dollars. Many refused to take their shares, complaining of injustice in the division, and it required all the skill and management of Cortes to soothe the spirits of the discontented. Not a few, it appeared in the end, were no richer for all the prize-money they had obtained than when they left Cuba; for, as Bernal Diaz tells us, "deep gaming went on day and night with cards made out of the heads of drums."

Only one source of discomfort now remained to Cortes. This was the continuance of the idolatrous worship of the Mexicans. This subject occupied his thoughts incessantly; and he could not persuade himself that his efforts would be meritorious in the eyes of God, or even that he could hope for permanent success, until the false gods of the Mexicans had been shattered in pieces, and their

temples converted into Christian sanctuaries. Not only as a devout Catholic did he abominate the existence of a false worship in a country over which he had control, but, as a man, as a native of a civilized country, he shrunk in abhorrence from the bloody and sickening rites which formed part of the religion of the Mexicans—their human sacrifices—accompanied, strangely enough, among a people so polished and so advanced in ingenious arts, by the practice of cannibalism. At length Cortes announced to Montezuma that he must allow at least a part of the great temple to be converted into a Christian place of worship. Montezuma had been a priest, and the proposal was, perhaps, the most shocking that could have been made to him. He gave his consent, however, and one of the sanctuaries on the top of the temple was purified, and an altar and a crucifix erected in it.

This last act filled up the measure of Mexican endurance. To see their monarch a prisoner, to surrender their kingdom and its treasures—these they could submit to; but could they sit tamely under an insult offered to their gods? Hither and thither, through the city, ran the priests, with haggard faces and hair clotted with blood, stirring up the zeal of the inhabitants, and denouncing woes unless the Spaniards were expelled. The crisis was imminent, and every possible precaution was used to prevent a sudden surprise by the excited Mexicans.

It was now the month of May, 1520, and the Spaniards had been six months in the Mexican capital. Suddenly the little army was thrown into consternation by intelligence of an unexpected kind received by Cortes.

It will be remembered that, before advancing into the interior of the country, Cortes had despatched a vessel to Spain with letters to the emperor, Charles V., and a quantity of treasure. Contrary to the instructions of Cortes, the vessel touched at Cuba, on its voyage; and a sailor escaping conveyed to Velasquez an account of all that had taken place in the expedition, down to the foundation of Villa Rica. The rage of Velasquez exceeded all bounds. He wrote letters to the home government, and also to the court for colonial affairs established in Hispaniola; and, not content with this, he instantly began to fit out a second expedition, which was to proceed to Mexico, depose or decapitate Cortes, and seize the country for the Spanish sovereign in the name of the governor of Cuba. The fleet was larger, with one exception, than any yet fitted out for the navigation



EXPEDITION OF NARVAEZ.

of the seas of the New World. It consisted of nineteen vessels, carrying upwards of a thousand foot-soldiers, twenty cannons, eighty horsemen, a hundred and sixty musketeers and crossbow-men, besides a thousand Indian servants—a force sufficient, as it seemed, to render all resistance on the part of Cortes hopeless. Velasquez, at first, intended to command the expedition in person; but, as he was too old and too unwieldy for such a laborious task, he intrusted it to Don Pamfilo de Narvaez, described as a man “about forty-two years of age, of tall stature, and large limbs, a full face, red beard, and agreeable presence; very sonorous and lofty in his speech, as if the sound came out of a vault; a good horseman, and said to be valiant.”

The fleet anchored off the coast of Mexico, at San Juan de Ulloa, on the 23d of April, 1520. Here Narvaez received information which astonished him—that Cortes was master of the Mexican capital; that the Mexican emperor was his prisoner; that the country and its treasures had been surrendered to the Spanish sovereign; and that at present his rival was as absolute in it as if he were its

monarch. This information only increased his anxiety to come to a collision with Cortes; and, with singular imprudence, he went about among the Indians, declaring, in a blustering manner, that Cortes was a rebel against his sovereign, and that he had come to chastise him, and to set Montezuma free.

Narvaez's first step was to send three messengers, one of them a priest, to the garrison of Villa Rica, to summon them to surrender. The commandant of the garrison, appointed shortly after the death of Juan de Escalante, was Gonsalvo de Sandoval, a young officer, a native of the same town as Cortes, and who had already won the esteem of his general and of the whole army by his valour and services. When the messengers of Narvaez, arriving at Villa Rica, presented a copy of Narvaez's commission, and summoned the garrison to surrender, Sandoval, without any ceremony, caused them to be seized, strapped to the backs of Indian porters, and instantly sent across the country to Mexico, in charge of one or two soldiers, who carried a note to Cortes, informing him of what had happened. Cortes, after thoroughly gaining them over by kind words and presents, sent them back to sow the seeds of dissension in Narvaez's army. At the same time, he entered into a correspondence with Narvaez, which led to no definite result. As there was great danger that Narvaez would succeed in alienating the Cempoallans from Cortes, if he were to remain in his present position, Cortes resolved to leave Mexico with a part of his men, march to the sea-coast, and, if necessary, give battle to Narvaez. This was a perilous step; but, in the circumstances, it was absolutely necessary.

Leaving a garrison of a hundred and forty men in Mexico, under the command of Pedro de Alvarado, who appeared by far the fittest person for so responsible a post, Cortes set out with the rest of his force, amounting to less than two hundred soldiers, only five of whom were cavalry, and, by rapid marches reached the Totonac territories, where he was reinforced by Sandoval and his small body of men. Altogether, Cortes's army did not amount to more than a fifth part of that of Narvaez. They were veterans in service, however, and, under such a leader as Cortes, were prepared to attempt impossibilities. Narvaez, in the mean time, was in close quarters at Cempoalla, aware that his rival was on his march, but little suspecting that he was so near. On the night of the 26th of May, 1520, Cortes and his brave little band, crossing, with difficulty, a swollen river which lay between them and their countrymen, advanced



DEFEAT OF NARVAEZ.

stealthily towards Narvaez's quarters, surprised the sentinels, and shouting the watchword, "Espirito Santo!" dashed in among the half-awakened, half-armed foe. The struggle did not last long; for Sandoval, with a small body of picked men, springing up the stairs of the house where Narvaez was lodged, succeeded, after a hand-to-hand fight with the general and his followers, in making him prisoner, after he had lost an eye and been otherwise severely wounded. On learning the fall of their leader, the rest yielded; and when daylight came, Cortes, "seated in an arm-chair, with a mantle of an orange colour thrown over his shoulders, and surrounded by his officers and soldiers," received the salutations and the oaths of allegiance of all the followers of Narvaez. In his treatment of these new friends, his usual policy was conspicuous: he plied them with flatteries, and loaded them with gifts, till his own veterans began to be envious. Thus, by a single bold stroke, which cost him but a

few men, Cortes had crushed a formidable enemy, and increased his own force sixfold. Fortune favours the brave! His army now amounted to thirteen hundred men, exclusive of the garrison he had left in Mexico; and of these thirteen hundred nearly a hundred were cavalry. With such a force, he might now prosecute his designs in Mexico with every prospect of success, and bid defiance to all the efforts of the Mexicans to regain their independence.

He was disagreeably roused from these self-congratulations by intelligence from Mexico. Some difference had occurred between Pedro de Alvarado and the Mexicans, the latter of which had risen *en masse*, and were besieging the Spaniards in their quarters. Without loss of time, he commenced his march towards the capital, leaving a hundred men at Villa Rica. At Tlascala he was joined by two thousand of his faithful mountain allies; and the whole army then pushed on for the Mexican valley, anxious to relieve Alvarado, whom the Mexicans were now trying to reduce by blockade. On the 24th of June, they reached the great lake, and marched along the causeway without opposition, but amidst an ominous stillness. Alvarado clasped his general in his arms for joy; and now, for the first time, Cortes learned the origin of the revolt. Alvarado, suspecting some conspiracy among the Aztec nobles, had treacherously massacred a number of them collected at a religious festival, and the inhabitants had risen to take vengeance for the injury. Cortes sharply rebuked his officer for his misconduct; but the evil was already done, and to punish Alvarado would have been attended with no good effect. Moodily and bitterly, therefore, Cortes expended his vexation on the unhappy Mexican monarch, accusing him of being concerned in the insurrection, and calling upon him to check it, and procure provisions for the Spaniards. Montezuma complied as far as lay in his power: Cortes also used his best endeavours to allay the storm; and, for a while, it appeared as if their efforts were successful.

The calm was only temporary. The day after the arrival of Cortes, a soldier, who had been sent on an errand by him, returned breathless and bloody to the Spanish quarters. He had been fallen upon by a multitude of Mexicans, who endeavoured to drag him away in their canoes for sacrifice, and he had only escaped after a desperate struggle. The whole city, he said, was in arms; the drawbridges were broken down; and they would soon attack the Spaniards in their stronghold.

The news was too true. The Aztecs poured along the streets like a flood, approaching the square where the Spaniards were lodged, while the terraced roofs of all the houses in the vicinity were crowded with slingers and archers, ready to shower their missiles upon the besieged. And now commenced a struggle which lasted seven days, and to which there is no parallel in history. Day after day, the fighting was renewed, the Spaniards either making a sally upon the besiegers, or beating them back when they advanced to storm or set fire to their quarters. The only relaxation was at night, when the Mexicans generally drew off. The Spaniards were always victorious; but their losses were considerable in every action, and the perseverance of the Mexicans alarmed them. Instead of yielding to their first defeats, they seemed to act on the conviction that they must be defeated continually until the Spaniards were all slain. This resolution astonished Cortes, who, till now, had undervalued the courage of the Aztecs. His soldiers, especially those who had come into the country with Narvaez, heaped reproaches upon him; although, when they saw his conduct in the fray—the bravery with which he spurred his horse into the thickest of the enemy, the generosity with which he would risk his own life to rescue a comrade from the hands of a crowd of Aztecs—their reproaches were lost in admiration.

Wearied out by his incessant efforts, and perceiving the hopelessness of continuing a contest against so many myriads of enemies—for recruits were flocking in from the neighbouring country to assist the Mexicans against the common foe—Cortes resolved to try the effect of negotiation, and to employ Montezuma as his intercessor. At his request, therefore, Montezuma, dressed in his imperial robes, appeared on a terraced roof, where he was visible to the multitude gathered in the great square. A silence ensued, and Montezuma was parleying with four nobles who approached him, when suddenly a shower of stones and arrows fell on the spot where he was standing. The Spanish soldiers tried to interpose their bucklers; but it was too late; Montezuma fell to the ground, his head bleeding from the effect of a blow with a stone. He was immediately removed, and every means used for his recovery; nor was the wound of itself dangerous. But his kingly spirit had received a wound which no words could heal; he had been reviled and struck by his own subjects, among whom hitherto he had walked as a sacred being: he refused to live any longer. He tore the bandages from his head

and rejected all nourishment; and in a short time the Spaniards were informed that their unhappy prisoner was dead. Cortes and many of the men could not refrain from weeping; and the body was surrendered to the Mexicans with every testimony of respect.

The fighting was now recommenced with greater fury, and prodigies of valour were performed by the Spaniards; but all to no purpose. Another attempt was made to induce the enemy to come to terms. The only answer was the threat that they would all be sacrificed to the gods, and the appalling information, "You cannot escape; the bridges are broken down." At last, as death was before their eyes, it was determined by Cortes, and all the officers and soldiers, to quit the city during the night, as they hoped at that time to find the enemy less alert.

Towards midnight, on the 1st of July, 1520, they left their quarters secretly, most of the soldiers loading themselves with the gold which remained over and above the royal share, and proceeded as silently as possible towards the western causeway, leading to Tlacoapan, by which, as being the shortest of the three, (two miles long,) they thought that it would be easiest to effect a passage. In this causeway, there were three drawbridges separated by intervals nearly equal; and aware that these had been destroyed by the Mexicans, Cortes had provided a portable bridge, made of timber, the carriage of which he had intrusted to forty picked soldiers. The van of the army was led by Sandoval, with two hundred foot and a body of horse under his command; the baggage, large guns, and prisoners came next, guarded by Cortes and a band of veterans; and the rear was brought up by Pedro de Alvarado and Velasquez de Leon, commanding the strength of the infantry.

The night was dark and rainy. The Spaniards reached the causeway without being interrupted. The portable bridge was laid across the first moat or gap, and a great part of the army had gone over it in safety, and were already approaching the second gap, when, through the stillness of the night, there was heard the boom of the great drum from the top of the Mexican war temple, the rushing of myriads of pursuers along the causeway from behind, and the splashing of the oars of thousands of canoes full of warriors, which were advancing through the lake on both sides of the causeway. Showers of arrows fell on the rear-guard as they were passing over the portable bridge; and the Aztecs, clambering up the sides of the causeway, grappled with the soldiers and tried to

drag them into the water. Throwing off these assailants by main strength, Alvarado and his men steadily and expeditiously moved on. Meanwhile, the vanguard under Sandoval having reached the second gap, were waiting until the portable bridge should be brought up to enable them to cross it. Goaded with the arrows which were discharged upon them in clouds from the Aztec canoes, they grew impatient of the delay, and began to cast anxious glances backward along the causeway for the appearance of the bridge. Suddenly the appalling news was passed along that the bridge had stuck so fast at the first opening that it could not be pulled up. The weight of the men and the heavy baggage crossing it had fastened it into



SANDOVAL.

the earth so firmly as to defy extrication. When this awful intelligence reached the vanguard, order and command were at an end; uproar and confusion ensued; and, seized with the instinct of self-preservation, each man tried to shift for himself. Flinging themselves headlong into the gap, they struggled with the Mexican warriors in the water, upsetting their canoes in their drowning agonies. Rank after rank followed, each trampling upon the bodies of its predecessors, and floundering among the canoes which lay between them and the opposite side.

Sandoval and a few of the cavalry swam their horses across; some of the foot also were able to reach the side of the causeway and climb up; but of the vanguard the great majority were drowned, or slain, or carried off wounded in the Mexican canoes. Meanwhile, on came the rest of the army; men, carriages, guns, baggage, all were swept into the trench, which was soon choked up by the wreck. Over this bridge of broken wagons, bales of cotton, and the dead bodies of their companions and enemies, Cortes and his veterans were able to reach the other side of the trench with less difficulty. Here, joining Sandoval and the few survivors of his band, they dashed along the causeway towards the third and last opening, regardless of the darts and arrows which the Mexicans discharged among them from their canoes. Reaching the third trench, they crossed it in the same manner as the last, but

without so much loss, and were rapidly approaching the mainland, when, looking back through the dim morning twilight, they saw Alvarado and his rearguard pent up on the causeway between the second and third bridges, and almost overborne by the Mexicans who surrounded them. Cortes, Sandoval, and a few of the horse instantly wheeled round to the rescue; and, recrossing the third gap, shouted their battle-cry and interposed between the Spaniards and their pursuers. This timely succour enabled most of the infantry to escape; and at length all had crossed the opening except Cortes, Sandoval, Alvarado, and a few others. Cortes, Sandoval, and the rest soon followed, carried through by their horses; and only one man remained on the Mexican extremity of the causeway. It was Pedro de Alvarado: his horse was slain; and he was standing on the brink, surrounded by enemies ready to drag him off, should he plunge into the trench. Five or six warriors were already advancing from behind to seize him, when, casting one glance at the opposite edge where his countrymen were waiting him, he planted the end of his long lance among the rubbish which choked up the gap, and, rising in the air, cleared it at a bound. The spot where this tremendous feat was executed still bears the name of *Alvarado's Leap*.

The Mexicans now desisted from the pursuit; and the relics of the Spanish army, advancing along the remainder of the causeway entered Tlacopan. Here they did not remain long, being anxious to place themselves beyond the reach of the Mexicans, and to arrive at Tlascala, the city of their faithful allies. They were now able to count the losses which they had sustained during the night. About four hundred and fifty Spaniards, and nearly four thousand Tlascalans, had been drowned, slain, or made prisoners during the passage along the causeway; a loss which, added to the numbers killed within the city, reduced the army to little more than a fourth of what it had been when it entered Mexico ten days before. But the most deplorable part of the calamity, in the eyes of Cortes, was the loss of all the artillery, firearms, and ammunition, not so much as a musket remaining among the five hundred who survived. Still, under this accumulation of misfortunes, his heart did not sink; and his resolution was taken not to leave the country till he had regained his former footing in it, and annexed it as a province to the dominions of his sovereign.

His first object was to reach Tlascala, where he might recruit the



CORTES AT OTUMBA.

strength of his men—almost all of whom were stiff with wounds—and arrange his future proceedings. After many difficulties, and another great battle on the plain of Otumba, in which he defeated the Mexicans, he reached it on the 9th of July, 1520. They were kindly received by the generous mountaineers, who withstood all the solicitations of the Mexican sovereign, Cuitlahua, Montezuma's brother and successor, that they would assist him in driving the Spaniards out of the country.

It was early in autumn, before Cortes left Tlascala. His intention was first to punish several states of Anahuac which had revolted during his absence in Mexico, especially the districts of Tepeaca and Cachula; and then, after having reduced the whole country east of the Mexican valley, to return to the capital itself, and take it by storm. With a force so reduced as his, without cannons or other firearms, this was an apparently hopeless enterprise; but *hopeless* was a word of which Cortes did not know the meaning. Fortunately, while engaged in subduing the eastern districts of Anahuac, he received reinforcements which he never anticipated. Velasquez, ignorant of the fate of the expedition which he had sent under Narvaez, and supposing that Cortes was by this time a prisoner in the hands of his rival, had despatched a ship with stores, arms, and ammunition to the colony of Villa Rica. The vessel touched at the port; the captain and his men disembarked, suspecting nothing, and were instantly seized by the officer of Cortes; nor did it require

much persuasion to induce the whole crew to enlist under the standard of a man of whom they had heard so many eulogies. A second vessel sent by Velasquez soon afterwards shared the same fate; three ships sent by the governor of Jamaica to prosecute discoveries, and plant colonies in Central America, chancing also to land at Villa Rica, their crews joined the army of Cortes; and lastly, a merchant vessel, loaded with provisions and all the necessities of war, arrived at the Mexican coast and was purchased by Cortes—sailors, cargo and all.

Having completely subjugated all Anahuac to the east of the Mexican valley, Cortes resolved to found a second Spanish colony in the interior of the country, which should form a half-way station between Villa Rica and the city of Mexico. The site chosen was Tepeaca, and the name given to the settlement was Segura de la Frontera. From this spot, Cortes wrote a second letter to Charles V., giving an account of the expedition from the date of the last letter down to the foundation of Segura, and announcing his intention of marching immediately to reconquer Mexico.

It was five months after the date of their expulsion from Mexico before the Spaniards were in a condition once more to march against it. Part of the necessary preparations consisted, as we have seen, in the subjugation of those parts of Anahuac which adjoined the Mexican valley on the east; but another cause of delay was the construction of thirteen brigantines at Tlascala, under the direction of Martin Lopez, a skilful shipwright, who had accompanied Cortes. These vessels were to be taken to pieces, and transported, together with the iron-work and cordage belonging to the ships which Cortes had destroyed off Villa Rica, across the mountains to the great Mexican lake. At length all was ready; and, on the 28th of December, 1520, the whole army left Tlascala on its march towards Mexico. It consisted of about six hundred Spaniards, with nine cannons and forty horses, accompanied by an immense multitude of native warriors, Tlascalans, Tepeacans, and Cholulans, amounting probably to sixteen thousand men, besides the *tamanes*, who were employed in transporting the brigantines. Garrisons had, of course, been left at Villa Rica and Segura.

No opposition was offered to the invaders on their march, the Mexicans fleeing at their approach; and on the 1st of January, 1521, they took possession of the city of Tezcuco. Cuitlahua, Montezuma's successor on the throne, was now dead, and his place was



OLID.

occupied by his nephew, Guatemozin, yet a young man, but the most heroic and patriotic of all the Mexicans. The policy of Cortes was first to subdue all the states and cities on the margin of the five lakes, so as to leave Mexico without protection or assistance, and then to direct his whole force to the reduction of the capital. For four months, therefore, Cortes, Sandoval, Alvarado, Olid, and his other officers were employed, sometimes separately, sometimes in concert, in reconnoitering expeditions into various parts of the Mexican valley—from Chalco, on the banks of the southernmost, to Xaltocan, an island in the northernmost lake. Meantime three vessels arrived at Vera Cruz with a reinforcement of two hundred men, eighty horses, and a supply of ammunition, all of which reached the camp in safety, as the communication to the coast was open. Passing over the account of a conspiracy among his men, which the prudence and presence of mind of Cortes enabled him to quash, and of the execution of the Tlascalán chief, Xicotencatl, for deserting the Spaniards, we hasten to the concluding scene.

On the 10th of May, 1521, the siege commenced. Alvarado, with a hundred and fifty Spanish infantry, thirty cavalry, and eight thousand Tlascalans, took up his station at Tlacopan, so as to command the western causeway; Christoval de Olid, with the same

number of cavalry and Indians, and a hundred and seventy-five infantry, commanded one of the branches of the southern causeway at Cojohuacan; and Sandoval, with a force nearly equal, the other branch of the same causeway at Iztapalapan. Cortes himself took the command of the flotilla of brigantines. For several days, the three captains conducted operations more or less successfully at their respective stations, one of Alvarado's services having consisted in destroying the pipes which supplied the Mexicans with fresh water, so that, during the rest of the siege, they had no other way of procuring a supply than by means of canoes. The brigantines, when they were launched, did immense service in overturning and dispersing the Mexican canoes, and also in protecting the flanks of the causeways on which the other detachments were pursuing their operations. At length, after much resistance on the part of the Mexicans, the two causeways, the western and the southern, were completely occupied by the Spaniards; and Sandoval having, by Cortes's orders, made a circuit of the lake, and seized the remaining causeway of Tepejacac, the city was in a state of blockade. But so impatient were the Spaniards of delay, that Cortes resolved on a general assault on the city by all the three causeways at once. Cortes was to advance into the city from Xoloc, Alvarado from his camp on the western causeway, and Sandoval from his camp on the northern; and the three detachments, uniting in the great square in the centre of the city, were to put the inhabitants to the sword. The plan had nearly succeeded. The vanguard of Cortes's party had chased the retreating Mexicans into the city, and were pushing their way to the great square, when the horn of Guatemozin was heard to sound, and the Aztecs, rallying, commenced a furious onset. The neglect of Cortes to fill up a trench in one of the causeways, impeded the retreat of the Spaniards in such a way as to cause a dreadful confusion, and it was only by efforts almost superhuman that they were able to regain their quarters. Their loss amounted to upwards of a hundred men, of whom about sixty had been taken alive.

This triumph elated the Mexicans as much as it depressed the Spaniards and their allies. It was prophesied by the Mexican priests that in eight days all the Spaniards should be slain; the gods, they said, had decreed it. This prediction, reported in the quarters of the besiegers, produced an extraordinary effect on the allies. They regarded the Spaniards as doomed men, refused to

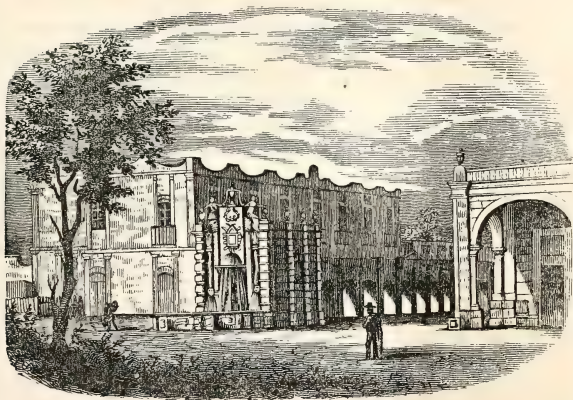
fight with them, and withdrew to a little distance from the lake. In this dilemma, Cortes showed his wonderful presence of mind, by ordering a total cessation of hostilities for the period specified by the Mexican gods. When the eight days were passed, the allies, ashamed of their weakness, returned to the Spanish quarters, and the siege recommenced. These eight days, however, had not been without their horrors. From their quarters, the Spaniards could perceive their fellow-countrymen who had been taken prisoners by the Mexicans, dragged to the top of the great war temple, compelled to dance round the sanctuary of the gods, then laid on the stone of sacrifice, their hearts torn out, and their bleeding bodies flung down into the square beneath.

Famine now assisted the arms of the Spaniards; still, with that bravery of endurance for which their race is remarkable, the Mexicans continued the defence of the city, and it was not till it had been eaten into, as it were, on all sides by the Spaniards, that they ceased to fight. On the 14th of August, a murderous assault was commenced by the besiegers. It lasted two days; and on the evening of the second, some canoes were seen to leave the city and endeavoured to reach the mainland. They were chased and captured; and on board of one of them was found Guatemozin, with his family and his principal nobles. Guatemozin's capture was the signal of complete defeat; and on the 16th of August, 1521, the city was surrendered to the Spaniards. The population was reduced to about forty thousand, and in a few days all these had disappeared, no one knew whither. The city was in ruins, like some huge churchyard with the corpses disinterred and the tombstones scattered about.

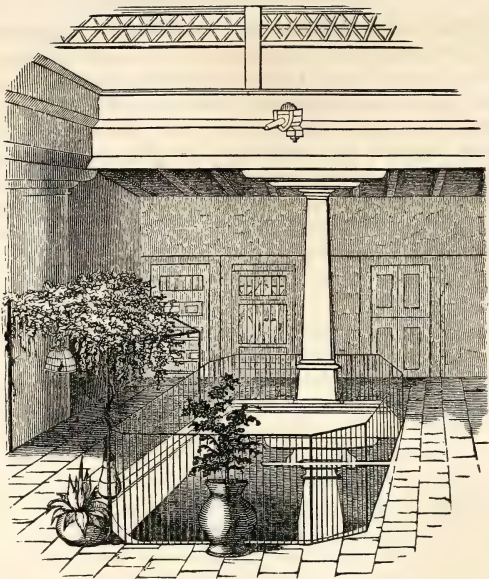


HUS was the ancient and beautiful city of Mexico destroyed, and its inhabitants slain or dispersed. A monstrous act of unjustifiable aggression had been completed. Following up this great blow, Cortes pursued the conquest of the country generally; and in this, as well as in organizing it into a colony of Spain, he did not experience any serious difficulty. On proceeding to Spain, he was received with honour by Charles V. He returned to Mexico in 1530; and again revisiting Spain in 1540, for the purpose of procuring the redress of real or alleged grievances, he died in 1547, in the sixty-third year of his age. It is very much to be lamented, that, in the execution of his

purposes of colonization, the monuments of Mexican civilization were everywhere destroyed, leaving nothing to future generations but the broken relics of palaces, temples, and other objects of art, scattered amidst the wilderness. Some of these ruined monuments, recently explored by Stephens and other travellers, show that the ancient Mexicans had made remarkable advances in social life as well as in the arts, more particularly architecture; and what renders all such relics the more interesting to the archæologist is, the growing conviction, that the old Mexican civilization was of an original type—a thing noway derived from, or connected with, the civilization of Egypt, or any other nation in the eastern hemisphere.



TERMINATION OF AN AQUEDUCT IN MEXICO



INTERIOR OF A MEXICAN HOUSE.

CHAPTER V.

RECENT HISTORY OF MEXICO.



AFTER two years of continuous and laborious warfare, Cortes succeeded in overturning the empire of the Aztecs, and the smaller states were subjected to the Spaniards almost without a struggle. The position which the Spaniards held with respect to the natives of the country very much resembling that of the nations of German origin who overturned the Roman empire and settled in the countries of Western Europe. Like them, the Spaniards were obliged to establish a kind of feudal system, to protect

themselves against the much more numerous native population. In Europe, the victors and the vanquished in the course of time united so as to form one nation, but such a change has not taken place in Mexico, and probably never will take place. The Spaniards and natives belong to two different races of men, differing in colour and in many other respects. The Spanish conquerors also had attained a higher degree of civilization, while in Europe the conquerors learned from the conquered the most useful arts of civilized life. Even now, more than three centuries since the conquest, the Spaniards and natives constitute two perfectly distinct classes.

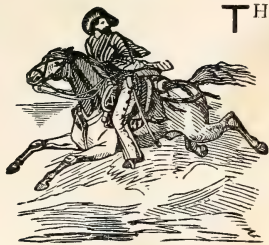
As the number of the conquistadores, or companions of Cortes, was very small in comparison with the native population, they were anxious to bring over more of their countrymen. A considerable number of Spaniards accordingly annually emigrated to Mexico, and there acquired great wealth, as officers of government, merchants, and adventurers in mining. As many of these Spaniards were possessed of extensive property in land within Mexico, their descendants, the Creoles, settled, of course, in that country, and their numbers were continually increasing. The Spanish government, however, seems not to have formed a correct idea of their condition among the natives, and to have thought that the government of that country could only be entrusted to persons who considered Spain as their native country; it, therefore, excluded all the Creoles, or descendants of Spaniards born in Mexico, from all offices of government, and even from commissions in the army. Such exclusion excited in them a considerable degree of ill-will against Spain and the Spaniards, which would probably have manifested itself in resistance and rebellion, if they had not feared that the native population would take advantage of such a circumstance to effect their own destruction. They had still to fear another enemy which had grown up imperceptibly among them. Few of the Spaniards had brought wives with them. From their intercourse with the native women sprung up a race called metis, or mestizos, which increased still faster than that of the Creoles, who, however, being in possession of great wealth, were well aware that as long as a regular government subsisted they had nothing to fear either from the natives or the mestizos. This will account for the fact, otherwise difficult of explanation, that no signs of active dissatisfaction manifested themselves in Mexico during the first thirty years after the United States of North America had obtained their Independence, though the



JOSEPH BONAPARTE.

Mexicans were well acquainted with the advantages which their neighbours had obtained.

It is even possible that the political condition of Mexico would not have undergone any change for a long time, but for the events in Europe and in Spain, in 1808. By the intrigues of Bonaparte, the royal family were compelled to abdicate the throne of Spain, and he conferred the whole Spanish monarchy on his brother Joseph, then King of Naples. The Spaniards in Mexico and the Creoles were unanimous in declaring their resistance to the government established by the French. The viceroy could no longer receive orders from Spain, and it was necessary to organize a government which should act independently under a certain sanction, and with authority. But, as to this point, they disagreed. The Creoles wished to establish a national representation; the Spaniards opposed the measure and prevented the establishment of a system of national representation for Mexico.



THE Creoles submitted ; but the public mind had been agitated by the discussions which had taken place, and soon afterwards, in 1810, the natives and the mestizos rose against the government. They were headed by Don Miguel Hidalgo y Castilla, the cura, or parish priest of Dolores, a small town in the state of Guanajuato. The Creoles sided with the Spanish government. Hidalgo, who had soon an immense force with him, took Guanajuato by storm, and occupied Valladolid, whence he advanced over the table-land of Toluca to that of Tenochtitlan. The Spanish governor sent a small corps against him, which was defeated by Hidalgo on the 30th of October at Las Cruces, a pass in the chain which separates the table-lands of Tenochtitlan and Toluca. But, notwithstanding this victory, Hidalgo retreated, and eight days afterwards was, in his turn, defeated by Calleja, at Aculo. Hidalgo retired to Valladolid and Guadalajara ; and in the neighbourhood of the last-mentioned town, he was again defeated, and soon afterwards taken prisoner and shot.

In the mean time, the whole country had risen in insurrection, and many leaders began to act separately. The most remarkable among them was Don Jose Maria Morelos, cura of Nucupetaro, who, with great activity, talents, and success, maintained the southern provinces in rebellion against the governor, and formed a *junta*, or central government, which, in September, 1811, assembled in the town of Zatacuaro, in the state of Michoacan. But that town was soon afterwards taken by Calleja, and the *junta* were dispersed. Calleja, however, was soon obliged to march against Morelos, who had penetrated into the table-land of Tenochtitlan from the south. He was attacked by Calleja, in the town of Cuantla y Amilpas, and, after defending himself for nearly three months with great skill and gallantry, he abandoned that place and took Oaxaca.

The *junta* was now increased by new members, and under the title of the National Assembly, it declared the Independence of Mexico, on the 13th of November, 1813. But, after that event, Morelos had less success in his daring enterprises ; and, in November, 1815, he was taken prisoner, conducted to Mexico, and shot. Many of his companions in arms maintained the conflict for some

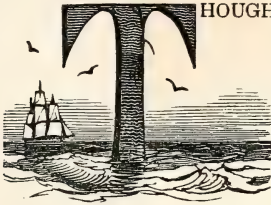


MINA.

time, but they did not act in concert with one another; especially after one of them, Terán, had dissolved the Congress, which had been transferred from Oaxaca to Tehuacán in the state of Puebla. The viceroy, Venegas, supported by the gallantry and skill of Calleja, destroyed successively the armies of these chiefs, so that when Don Xavier Mina, the famous Spanish guerilla chief, landed in Mexico, in 1817, the fortune of the insurgents was at so low an ebb that he was unable to restore their cause, and he perished in the attempt. The country gradually became more tranquil, and in 1820 it was restored nearly to the same degree of order which it had enjoyed before 1808, to which fortunate results the mildness of the new viceroy Apodáca materially contributed.

The events which occurred in Spain in the beginning of 1820, suddenly changed the aspect of affairs, and deprived Spain of the most valuable of her possessions in America, which it had regained at the cost of much blood and treasure. The Spaniards and the Creoles, who had formerly made common cause, were now divided into two parties, royalists and constitutionalists. Apodáca, who inclined to the former party, wished to overthrow the constitution of Mexico, and chose for his instrument Don Augustin de Iturbide, a young man, born in the province of Valladolid, of respectable but not wealthy parents. He had distinguished himself in the battle of Las Cruces, and always shown great attachment to the Spanish part-

Iturbide had about eight hundred men under his command, when, on the 24th of February, 1821, at the little town of Iguála, on the road from Mexico to Acapulco, he issued a proclamation, which, since that time, has been called the Plan of Iguála. Its object was to conciliate all parties. It was to establish the independence of Mexico, and still to preserve its union with Spain. To effect this, the crown of Mexico was to be offered to the King of Spain, and in case of his refusal, to one of his brothers, Don Carlos or Don Francisco de Paulo, provided they would consent to reside in the country.



THOUGH Iturbide had certainly exceeded the powers which he had received from Apodáca, the viceroy, seeing that this proposal met the wishes of most persons, took no step to crush Iturbide; and the Spaniards of the capital, alarmed at this delay, deposed him, and placed Don Francisco Novella at the head of affairs. But the disorders which always attend such violent changes, gave Iturbide time to unite his troops with those of Guerrero, the only insurgent chief still existing in the country, and to bring over to his party all the western and northern provinces. Before the month of July, the whole country recognised his authority, with the exception of the capital, in which Novella had shut himself up with all the European troops. At this moment he received intelligence of the arrival at Vera Cruz of the new constitutional viceroy Don Juan O'Donoju. Iturbide hastened to the coast, obtained an interview with O'Donoju, and persuaded him to accept the Plan of Iguála as an armistice and final settlement, if it should be approved in Spain. This is called the treaty of Cordova, from the place where it was made.

Iturbide thus got possession of the capital, where a junta and a regency were established, but in such a form that all power remained in the hands of Iturbide. By a decree of the cortes, dated the 13th February, 1822, the treaty of Cordova was declared to be illegal, null, and void; and Iturbide, who had the power in his hands, and a great number of adherents, found no difficulty in ascending the throne. The army declared him Emperor of Mexico, on the 18th of May, 1822, and he took the title of Augustin I. He was acknowledged by the Mexican Congress, which had been opened on the



ITURBIDE.

24th of February; but a struggle for power soon arose between Iturbide and the congress, which the emperor terminated by dissolving the assembly, in the same manner as Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament, on the 30th October, 1822. On the same day he formed a new legislative assembly, composed of persons favourable to his wishes and intentions. But he had not skill enough to reconcile his companions in arms to these changes. Several generals declared against his proceedings, and prepared for resistance. Iturbide, terrified at the storm which was ready to burst on all sides, called together the old congress, abdicated in March, 1823, and went to Europe, whence, however, he returned to Mexico in 1824. He had been outlawed by the congress, and upon landing on the coast he was shot at Padilla, in Tamaulipas.

Mexico was thus left without a regular form of government, or even a constitution, affairs being managed provisionally by Bravo, Victoria, and Negrete. But on the 24th of October, 1824, a constitution uniting the sixteen original states into a Federal Republic, was proclaimed by a national convention after a session of fourteen months. The first congress assembled at Mexico, (January 1, 1825,) and installed General Victoria as President of the nation.

With the exception of some discontents occasioned by *pronunciamientos* of Robato, Padre, Arenas, and others, Victoria's administration was encouraging to the friends of republicanism, until his term of office had nearly expired. All parties had then merged into two, the Escoceses and Yorkinos, or Scotch and York parties—the first strongly opposed to republicanism, the second in favour of it. In December, 1827, General Bravo placed himself at the head of the Scotch party, and marched against the president; but he was defeated by the latter and banished. In the succeeding election, however, the Escoceses elected their presidential candidate Gomez Pedraza, by a majority of two votes. The exasperated republicans were not disposed to submit to this defeat with a good grace; and even before Pedraza was installed, Santa Anna marched against him with a small force. The Indians flocked to the standard of the insurgents, and, on the 4th of December, 1828, a pronunciamiento was issued in favour of Guerrero, the president's political opponent. The city of Mexico was rifled, and Pedraza compelled to fly to the United States. Immediately after, congress declared in favour of Guerrero for president and Bustamente for vice-president. The latter act was most unfortunate. The new administration had scarcely gone into operation when the vice-president raised an army, induced Santa Anna to join him, overthrew Guerrero, and seized the government. Not long after, (September 11, 1829,) Santa Anna broke the remaining Spanish influence in Mexico, by the victory of Barradas.

Guerrero was executed by order of the government, in 1831; and in the following year, Santa Anna took up arms against Bustamente. After various successes, he induced the president to permit the recall of Pedraza, who was immediately elevated to his former dignity, and served out his term of office. At its expiration, May 15, 1833, Santa Anna was elected to succeed him.

Santa Anna's energy of character and skill as a general were known, and dreaded throughout Mexico; but he was subjected to the same dangers from insurrections, declarations, and other symptoms of discontent, as his predecessors had been. The most formidable to the constitution was the "Plan of Tuluco," substituting a central for a federal republic, abolishing the individuality of the States, and constituting the chief magistrate a military chieftain. It gave rise to the Texan revolution, during which the president marched into the disaffected department; and, after alternate success



BUSTAMENTE.

and disaster, was entirely defeated and taken prisoner at San Jacinto. On returning from the United States, he found his influence destroyed, and retired to his farm at Manga de Clavo. During his absence and retirement, affairs were conducted by Barragan, Coro, and Bustamente.

The insurrection of Alexia, in 1838, afforded the first opportunity for Santa Anna to reappear in public life. The insurgents were defeated, and their leader put to death. The blockade of Vera Cruz by the French, during the ensuing winter, was another step towards regaining popularity. He there received a severe wound in the leg, which rendered amputation necessary; but this mischance he knew well how to appropriate to his own benefit.

In July, 1840, Urrea attempted to overthrow the government, but was defeated; but one year after, Valentia, Lombidini, Alaman, Paredes, and Santa Anna, pronounced against Bustamente. This revolution was one of the most fearful of all that have distracted Mexico since the days of the viceroys. The armies fought more than a month in the streets of the capital, after which it was subjected to



ALAMAN.

bombardment. The president was finally overthrown, and Santa Anna inaugurated military dictator, (January 1, 1841.)

The dictator held his power with great firmness until 1843, when he ordered Paredes to be arrested at Tula, in consequence of his having joined Valencia in a proposed insurrection. This measure incensed the friends of Paredes, and they collected in small parties preparatory to revolting. The dictator then changed his policy, and invited the general to accept the government of Sonora and Sinaloa.

This, however, was ineffectual; and, leaving Canalizo at the capital, Santa Anna marched against the insurgents. A civil war was the consequence. This was ended by the indiscreet zeal of Canalizo, who, on the 2d of December, 1844, closed the sitting of congress, and declared Santa Anna supreme dictator. Incensed at this act, the people and army rose, *en masse*, imprisoned Canalizo, and caused Herrera to be proclaimed president, by congress. Santa Anna was left almost entirely alone, and, after the most violent efforts at the head of a small force, he was taken prisoner. After

long deliberation, congress condemned him to perpetual exile. In June, 1845, he embarked for Havana, in company with his wife, nephew, and a few friends.

Congress now proclaimed a general amnesty, and passed a vote recognising the independence of Texas, on condition of its not becoming a part of the United States. This state of quiet was of short duration. The separation of Texas from the parent government was, of all measures, the most unpopular in Mexico; and soon Paredes, aided by Arista, was in arms against Herrera. The latter was deposed, Paredes assumed the reins of government, and the United States minister was ordered from the country. In the ensuing war, Paredes marched with the army to the north, leaving the management of affairs in the hands of General Bravo. His efforts were attended with uninterrupted misfortune, and the nation again turned its gaze towards Santa Anna, as the only one capable to retrieve its disgraces. Vera Cruz and other cities declared for him, and General Salas assuming provisional authority, imprisoned Paredes, and invited Santa Anna to return. He arrived at Vera Cruz, August, 1846, and was immediately appointed president and dictator. His subsequent public career, together with that of his country, is identified with the recent war waged against the United States, of which a history will be given in a subsequent part of this volume





PEDRO ALVARADO

CHAPTER VI.

CENTRAL AMERICA.



THE term Central America is usually applied to the region formerly known as Old Guatemala. In a geographical sense, however, it may be applied still more extensively, including the provinces of Guatemala, Yucatan, and the Balize

Guatemala is an extensive region, stretching between the Pacific Ocean and Carribean Sea, from the southern boundary of Mexico, to the Isthmus of Darien. In its climate, soil, productions, and geographical features, it much resembles the West Indies, except that the Andes render it one of the most mountainous of American countries. The western shore is subject to the most violent earthquakes; the interior is but little known. Politically, it is divided into the states of Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.

Guatemala was discovered at the same time with Mexico; but it is doubtful whether it was ever a part of that empire. The origin of its people and of their civilization is unknown. The same marks of national industry, the same massive ruins, great cities, temples, and palaces, the same order and regular government, prevailed here as in the north; but over them was thrown the same mystic veil which hid from eager gaze the inner and more interesting truths of their origin. Tradition among the natives pointed to a party of Toltecas from Mexico, as the original settlers, and even preserves the name of Nimaquiche, as the chief who led the party from Tula to their new abode. At the time of the Mexican conquest, Kicab Tanub, an alleged descendant of Nimaquiche reigned in Utatlan, the principal seat of the Quiches or primitive inhabitants of the country. This chief, who appears to have been of a most active warlike nature, was then engaged in hostilities with the neighbouring nations, called Mams, Zutugiles, and even with Sinacam, a king of Guatemala.

After the conquest of Mexico, Cortes despatched Alvarado against the southern countries, with three hundred infantry, and thirty-five horsemen, two hundred Tlascalans and Cholulans, and a hundred Mexicans. His artillery numbered four pieces. Such was the army destined to conquer provinces who numbered their warriors by hundreds of thousands. This army commenced its march in 1523, moved through the region of Socunusco and penetrated to the city of Xetulul in the Palahunoh chain of mountains. This, together with its fortress, was soon captured. On the banks of the Zomala the troops were suddenly attacked by a numerous body of Indians who, discharging stones and arrows upon them, compelled the auxiliaries to fall back. A discharge of musketry soon drove the assailants to their retreat in the mountains; but at short intervals they renewed the attack, seriously retarding the progress of the invaders.



HE news of this formidable invasion surprised Kicab Tanub in the midst of his military operations. His anxiety at so imminent a calamity absorbed all other feelings, and he determined immediately to conclude peace with the neighbouring chieftains. A plan for peace, and a general coalition against the invaders was sent to them; but so far was it from being accepted, that Sinacam openly declared himself the friend and ally of the Spaniards, or gods, as they were called. The king of the Zutugiles fiercely replied that he was



KICAB TANUB.

strong enough to defend his own territory against any enemy; and thus Kicab Tanub saw himself reduced to the necessity, not only of contending with his former enemies, but also with the Spaniards.

Undismayed by the gathering storm, the king applied himself diligently to finding means to avert it; but in the midst of his preparations, he sickened and died. His eldest son, Tecum Uman, had just ascended the throne, when he received intelligence that the Spaniards had quitted Soconusco, and were marching toward Xelahu, (Quezaltenango.) This place was the best fortified and most important of any in Utatlan, containing a garrison of twenty-five thousand men. To maintain this position was a matter of no little importance; and to that end Tecum Uman determined to direct all his efforts.

He, accordingly, issued from his capital in great pomp, surrounded by the nobles of the kingdom, and at the head of seventy thousand men, under his best general, Ahzol. Eighty thousand joined him at Chemequina; and at Quezaltenango, where he came in sight of the Spaniards, his force was swelled to two hundred and thirty thousand fighting men.

Without waiting for offers of negotiation, the king determined at once to give battle. His preparations for this issue prove that the determination was not a blind confidence in superior numbers—the too frequent error of the Indian armies. He chose the field of

Tzaccaha, and began fortifying it with the greatest care and precision. A wall, bordered by a deep ditch, was extended around its entire circuit; and in front of the ditch were planted rows of poisoned missiles, designed to interrupt and disorder an enemy's ranks. Thus intrenched, the Quiches awaited the advance of their powerful antagonists.



THE Spaniards approached Xelahuu with the utmost caution, in order to avoid surprise. In winding through the mountains, now known as Santa Maria de Jesus, they encountered, very unexpectedly, a host of Indians who barred the passage. The table-land above was in like manner swarming with warriors. Soon the wild

passes of the Cordilleras rang with the shouts of tens of thousands, and the two armies joined in a fierce and bloody struggle. Victory declared for the invaders, and, filing through the ravine, they recommenced their march. But their toil had only begun. At every pass, a new battle was offered; every peak and crag rained down showers of missiles, and the whole mountain range seemed converted into a hostile camp. Six engagements took place between Zamala and the river Olin-tepec. The last was fought in a defile on the river shore. The slaughter was so terrible that streams of blood ran down into the water, staining it for many yards along the banks, thus giving rise to the present significant name of Xiquigel, or bloody river. In a subsequent action, the Quiches fought with such desperate valour, that, forgetting all discipline, they seized the horses of the Spaniards by the mane, and struggled to overturn both steed and rider. Two days after, the victors entered Xelahuu which was found deserted. In a little while, however, the inhabitants returned and concluded a treaty with the new occupants.

The great battle between Alvarado and the Quiches took place on the following day. The first shock was terrible; and for a time the Spaniards seemed in danger of being defeated; but, as the crowds of their opponents continued to pour on, they became so densely packed, that exertion was almost impossible. Hundreds were mowed down in passive slaughter. The battle was not restored until the Spaniards had cut an opening into the living mass with their weapons. The vast multitude swayed to and fro like the



GREAT BATTLE BETWEEN ALVARADO AND THE QUICHES

ocean, and a wild uproar rose upon the air, and rolled from rock to rock of those lofty plains. The king behaved in a manner worthy his cause and station; and, at length, singling out Alvarado, he rushed upon him and engaged in a furious personal encounter. The horse of the Spanish general was struck dead; and, for a while, he was himself in imminent danger. He finally overturned his opponent with his lance. But, instead of being discouraged by the death of their king, the Quiches threw themselves upon the Spanish cavalry, and grasping the horses, struck maddened but vain blows with their hands. The steeds with their riders plunged breast-high among piles of dead bodies; and the ground in the immediate scene of battle was one great pool of blood. Discipline at last prevailed; and the rout of that day was total.

These great reverses were not sufficient to dampen the spirit of the Quiches. King Chignauivcelut, successor of Tecum Uman. ordered a great council to assemble at Utatlan, to deliberate upon future measures. It was there resolved to abandon open force, and

attempt to draw the invaders into a snare. Accordingly, the king sent a solemn embassy to Alvarado, announcing the submission of the kingdom, and offering a rich present in gold. Overjoyed at this news, Alvarado received the envoys with high distinction; and, on being invited in the king's name to visit the city and repose after his fatigues, he cordially assented, and dismissed them with presents to the monarch.

On the following day, the army commenced its march for Utatlan, elated with the prospect of speedy peace. After entering, they beheld, to their surprise, that their road lay through a narrow street, commanded by heavy fortifications, and flanked by ditches; that the women and children had all been removed; and that anxiety and trepidation displayed themselves among the inhabitants. Suspicions of treachery arose, and were soon confirmed by the Indians of Quezaltenango, who had discovered that the enemy had resolved on firing the city during the night. They also affirmed that large numbers of warriors were concealed in the neighbouring defiles, ready to fall upon all who should escape the flames.



IN this perplexing extremity, Alvarado called a council of war, and announced to his officers the dangers of their situation, and the necessity of an immediate retreat from the city. This was instantly agreed upon. Without any appearance of fear or agitation, the troops issued forth in good order and gained the plain. So abrupt a departure necessarily astonished the king; but Alvarado excused himself by alleging that the pasturage of the plains was, in the evening, indispensable to the horses. The king still continued his pacific policy; but in the eagerness to free the land from its invaders, he overstepped the bounds of prudence, and committed a fatal error. He accompanied Alvarado to the plain. Hardly had that leader placed himself in safety, when he seized the monarch, brought him to speedy trial, and, on the same evening, hung him in the presence of both armies. By this decisive step, it was thought the Indians would have been awed into submission; but the result was far otherwise.

The various forces of the Quiches, as though by common consent, poured down upon the Spaniards, and a contest ensued in which the latter found themselves attacked on all sides. But, although inpropitious at first, the battle soon turned in favour of the inva-

ders, and, broken down by repeated failures, the Indians now implored mercy. From that time the empire of Utatlan was conquered.

This victory was gained May 14, 1524. A small chapel was hastily constructed on the field of battle, and the next day, being Easter, the army attended a solemn celebration of mass. Thus was the Catholic religion introduced into Guatemala.

Anxious to conciliate the Indians, Alvarado now appointed a successor to Chignauivcelut. About the same time, he received offers of congratulation and alliance from Sinacum, whom he resolved to

visit. Leaving Jean de Léon Cardona in command of Utatlan, he marched for Guatemala, with a numerous escort, met the king on the road, and both leaders with their forces entered the capital in company. Here, for the first time, the Spaniards enjoyed that rest of which they had so long been desirous.



CARDONA.

After remaining in the city for some time, Alvarado yielded to the entreaties of his host, and accompanied him in an expedition against the warlike tribe of the Zutugiles. These were overthrown in several battles, and their chief city taken. On returning to the capital by a new route, the Spaniards

arrived (July 24, 1524) at a place named Atmulunca, or Almolunga. The picturesque beauty of this place, the rich meadows extending far into the interior, watered by hundreds of sparkling streams, the high mountains rising from both sides of the country and rushing up to heaven, either wrapped in never-melting snows or in flame and smoke, so charmed the Spaniards, that, with one consent, they determined to establish here a permanent colony. Aided by the Mexicans and the Tlascalans, they laid the rough foundations; and on the 25th of July, the day dedicated to the great Spanish patron, the troops attended divine service in the church which they had raised. The founding of the city was attended by rejoicings which lasted three consecutive days. On the 29th, the alcaides and magistrates were installed; and on the 12th of August, the public func-



CELEBRATION OF THE FOUNDING OF ST. JAGO.

tionaries and other persons, to the number of eighty-seven, were enrolled as citizens. Such was the origin of St. Jago.

Alvarado now turned his attention to the various tribes who were not yet conquered, but whose submission was essential to the security of Spanish authority. In the following year, some of these submitted, and others the Spaniards artfully involved in war among themselves. The province of Esquintla, laying on the Pacific, offered more serious resistance; so that in a great battle fought at night, although the Spaniards had surprised the foe, their whole force was engaged five hours in hot contest, and was even repulsed. They then barbarously threatened the Indians with burning their plantations of cacao and maize. The unhappy natives, dismayed at the prospect of immediate famine, submitted without further resistance. By the end of December, the campaign had terminated. Alvarado returned to the capital of the Cachiuels, laden with wealth and glory. The rapidity of his movements had been no less surprising than the ease with which he had conquered the Indian armies. He had subjected the important provinces of Zonzonate, Custatlan, (San Salvador,) and Chapparastic, or, San Miguel. The greater part of the Pacific shore acknowledged the authority of

Spain. At the same time, Alvarado's brother, Gonzalo, had defeated the Mams in several battles, took possession, after a bloody siege, of the important fortress of Socolbo, entered Güegüetenango, and carried his victorious arms throughout the province of Totonicapan.



THE fortress of Mixco, which was always considered impregnable by the Indians, was situated on a high perpendicular rock, the only access to which was so narrow as to permit but one man to pass at a time. A small force could defend it against an entire army, by merely throwing down rocks upon the assailants. The first detachment sent against this place was so disheartened by its strength and the

apparent impossibility of making any impression upon the works, that they determined to abandon it. But the arrival of Pedro Alvarado in camp changed the appearance of affairs. That intrepid general immediately called a council of war, over which he presided in person, and which determined on a vigorous prosecution of the siege. The Spaniards now resorted to stratagem, but in this they were foiled with considerable loss. Their cause now appeared hopeless, and it is more than probable that they would finally have been compelled to relinquish the undertaking, had not the caciques of Chignanta appeared in camp, demanded a peace, and informed the Spanish general of a subterranean passage leading from the citadel to the bank of a neighbouring river, by which the garrison could escape should the fortress be captured. This infused new life into the besiegers. A general attack was made on the heights by the army, marching in single file, while a detachment posted itself at the mouth of the subterranean passage to intercept stragglers. The fortress was finally carried by storm, and the Indians, with their wives and little ones, either killed or captured. The works were then entirely destroyed.

The submission of the country being now complete, Alvarado determined on returning to Spain and announcing his conquests to Charles V. But, when on the eve of departing, he received notice that Cortes had arrived in the province of Honduras; and deeming



CHARLES V.

in his duty to visit his superior, he set out (February, 1526) for that purpose. On reaching Cholulteca, he met a detachment of Spanish troops coming from Honduras, and was informed that Cortes had returned to Mexico. Not being able to follow him so far, Alvarado seems to have abandoned, for a while, the idea of visiting Europe, and returned to Guatemala.

He found the country, which had been left so peacefully, in a state of the most violent excitement. His brother, Gonzalo, who had ruled in his absence, had, by his cruelty and tyranny, especially toward the Indians, alienated all parties from him. The king of Quiche, Sequechul, with King Sinacum, were gathering the different native tribes for a desperate effort to shake off the yoke of bondage.

Alvarado immediately adopted the most energetic measures to suppress so formidable a rebellion. Confident of the support of all Spaniards, he marched against the Indians, and in a great battle, (November 22, 1526,) he completely routed them, taking the two kings prisoners. The unfortunate princes, by fifteen years of hard captivity, expiated the unpardonable crime of having wished to recover independence for themselves and their oppressed people.

This victory broke the spirits of the Indians inhabiting the conquered provinces, and from this time they seemed willing to acknowledge the authority of Spain. In proportion, however, as this danger decreased

a far more formidable evil began to display itself. This was dissension among the conquerors—the almost inseparable sequel to Spanish conquests. The difficulty of defining boundary lines between different provinces was one fruitful source of these disturbances. Either by accident or design, petty rulers encroached on the territory of others; and several rich provinces were claimed simultaneously by numerous competitors. These claims kept the whole country in a state of civil war, until December, 1527, when Alvarado received from the emperor the office of captain-general of Guatemala, an appointment which rendered him independent of Cortes. The energetic, and often oppressive rule of this officer restored in a great measure the general tranquillity. The influences of religion were added to his own efforts. In 1537, the execution of a most extensive plan for the conversion of the Indians was commenced by a number of missionaries, at the head of whom was the celebrated Las Casas. They visited nations hitherto unconquerable, and by inducing them to accept Christianity, opened an easy way to a cordial recognition of Spanish authority. These labours were continued through great difficulties, by themselves and successors, for upwards of a century: and to them, as much as to the mail-clad warriors, was owing the Spanish ascendancy in Central America.

The year 1541 was signalized by the death of Pedro Alvarado. After this event, the emperor established an audience, (November 20, 1542,) or supreme tribunal, of which Alonzo de Maldonado was named president. The seat of this court was fixed at Valladolid de Comayagua, but subsequently transferred to Gracias-a-Dios. In 1555, it was again removed to Guatemala, then to Panama, and finally to the capital. The tranquillity which the genius of Alvarado had secured to the province was buried with him. Faction, exasperated by the temporary obstruction, broke out fiercer than ever. Public morals were depreciated to the very lowest scale. Justice was but a name—crimes of the deepest and darkest dye were committed with impunity, and the criminals bought off from retribution by trifling sums. The Indians were treated as brutes—in short, all government was at an end—anarchy, crime, and reckless audacity rioted over the ruins of the Indian civilization. Such was the condition of affairs for a great portion of the long period of the Spanish dominion in Guatemala, till at last the country was ripe for revolution.

The first symptoms of dissatisfaction exhibited by the Indians and



ALONZO DE MALDONADO

others, was after the invasion of Spain by France, in 1808. The deepest anxiety was manifested throughout the whole of the Peninsular War, and the subsequent continental struggles. But after the fall of Napoleon, hardly had Spain adopted a constitution when Guatimaia, anxious to extirpate the remnant of absolute tyranny, appropriated the same one to herself without any alteration. But the formation of a junto in the following year, with absolute power to settle "indispensable" measures, gave rise to two parties, one in favour of entire emancipation from both Spain and Mexico; the other advocating the installation of the Bourbon family on the throne of Central America. The old Spanish party, supported by Leon, the capital of Nicaragua, and Comayagua, capital of Honduras, were in favour of the latter course; but the greater part of the cities and provinces adhered to the act of independence proclaimed by the junta.

Such was the situation of affairs when, on the 19th of October, 1821, Iturbide, Emperor of Mexico, addressed to the inhabitants of Guatemala a manifesto, in which, after having complimented them on their independence, he announced, that to consolidate their growing liberties, he would direct a numerous body of troops to their

frontiers. This strange proclamation was not received by the independents as favourably as the emperor had wished ; but the influential members of the Spanish party solicited his protection, changing the appellation of his troops from that of *servants* to *imperialists*. This faction chose as their chief, Filisola, president of the junta ; and by him the proclamation of Iturbide was distributed throughout the different provinces. Not satisfied with this, he joined with it an invitation to the people, to merge their nationality into that of Mexico ; and he even took upon himself the responsibility, as president of the junta, to declare the union effected, (January 11, 1822.)

The indignation of the people at this arbitrary stretch of power rose to the utmost pitch. The junta was dissolved. The president marched with some troops against St. Salvador, but was completely beaten, (July 3.) Defeated a second time by the people of the same province, (February 23, 1823,) he recommenced his march to Guatemala, where he received news of the revolution which had precipitated Iturbide from the imperial throne. The blow was astounding—his last hope was gone ; he immediately gave up all resistance and consented to the act of independence. A national convention having immediately assembled, ordered the Mexican troops to leave the country. Filisola led them out in person, taking possession, during his march, of the province of Chiapa, which he claimed for Mexico. This act was afterwards made good by Mexico, and Chiapa has ever since remained a fruitful source of dissension between the two countries.

This obstacle being removed, the National Assembly met again on the 24th of June, 1823. Complete independence was declared on the 21st of July, and on the 17th of December, the basis of a new constitution, modelled after that of the United States, was proclaimed to the nation. The republic was styled, the “United Provinces of Central America.” On the 6th of September, 1824, Congress completed the basis of the confederation at Costa Rica, nine days after, (15th,) the Federal Congress was installed ; and on the 22d of November, the constitution was solemnly signed by the deputies.

Thus Guatemala had proclaimed her freedom, and established a republican constitution ; but, very soon, she was to learn by bitter experience, that something more than these is necessary to secure the tranquillity and happiness of the people. Hardly had the instru-



FLORES.

ment of independence been signed, when fierce party spirit again sowed seeds of discord among the populace. The citizens were divided into aristocrats, or Centralists, and Federalists. The former wished to consolidate and centralize the powers of the general government. They were composed principally of influential families, who, pampered, during the domination of the Spaniards, with privileges and exorbitant monopolies, had gradually imbibed the state and feelings of the European nobility. The Federalists, on the contrary, were led by men, young and energetic, many of whom were actuated by an ardent love of country, a desire to set her free, and a disgust at the former civil oppression. They advocated the supremacy of the states, and freedom of conscience in religious matters. At the third session of congress, the two parties came to an open rupture. Soon after, the vice-president, Flores, visited the city of Quezaltenango, where he had rendered himself odious by his republican principles, and by levying a contribution on its convent. Seeing him in their city, the religious orders now excited the common people against him, and soon an infuriated mob were before his house exclaiming, "Death to the heretic." Flores ran to the church; but, when entering, he was seized by some women, his face and head severely beaten, and his life placed in the most imminent danger

By desperate exertions, he escaped into the church; but even here he was not secure. The bell rung, crowds collected from all quarters, and, although opposed by the soldiery, forced their way into the church. Fearful of the result, the priest came forward with a crucifix, and implored the people to spare the officer, promising to send him immediately from the city. The unhappy man confirmed these words on his knees. But all was of no avail. The populace rushed upon him, dragged him into the convent, and delivered him into the hands of its women. He soon expired under their dreadful treatments, and the body was submitted to the insults of the mob. Crowds then rushed through the streets, exclaiming, "Viva la religion—death to the heretics of congress." Encouraged by this success, the Centralists of the province of Guatemala rose in open rebellion, and extirpated the Republicans.

These outrages roused the indignation of the inhabitants of St. Salvador, who resolved to avenge the patriots of Guatemala. Accordingly, on the 6th of March, 1827, their army appeared before the gates of the capital, and threatened it with complete destruction. But religious fanaticism was too powerful to be easily intimidated. The priests ran, exhorting the people to take arms; the nuns and other women assembled with knives in their hands, swearing that every enemy of their religion should perish by their hands. The army of St. Salvador was in the issue entirely defeated.

The other provinces of Guatemala were in a like condition. In Nicaragua, the streets were barricaded, the chief Centralist and his soldiers massacred, part of the city burned to the ground, and the two parties so exasperated against each other that, for three months, even an ambassador could not be sent from one to the other. At Leon and Taguzgalpa, horror and desolation reigned supreme. The war continued with but little intermission for two years, at which time (1829) the troops of St. Salvador, under General Morazan, again marched against Guatemala. After three days' continual battle, the city was taken. A scene of stern retribution followed. The leaders of the Centralists were exiled, the convents opened and sacked, monastic orders abolished, the nuns sent from the country, and the archbishop driven into exile.

In 1831, Morazan was elected president of the republic and for eight years managed the public affairs with a degree of quiet long unknown to the country. But at the expiration of his second term, signs of faction began to reappear. Many of the banished Central-

ists had maintained a correspondence with those at home, some even venturing to return. These attentively watched an opportunity to recover their lost ascendancy. They found a leader in the notorious Carrera, a mulatto, who, from an obscure station, had raised himself to the command of numerous parties who infested the highroads. This individual kept the country in a state of continual ferment, and, though often defeated, he still managed to rally round him the priests, Indians, and most of the Centralists. The capital and other cities were several times taken, and shocking excesses committed on the opposite faction. Morazan was finally driven into exile, and with him fell the republican party. Since this time Guatemala has exhibited little more than a scene of national misrule, anarchy, and bloodshed.

Yucatan is an extensive peninsula running up into the Gulf of Mexico, between the bays of Campeachy and Honduras. It is not remarkable for the fertility of its soil, and is without mineral wealth. In the central parts, where there are no streams, when the rainy season fails, the people suffer greatly from deficient crops.

This country owes its discovery to Juan Diaz de Solis, and a companion of Columbus, named Vincent Yanez Pinzon. These adventurers were fired by Ponce de Leon's success in Puerto Rico, and obtained leave to perform a voyage to the continent. As far as the island of Guanaos, they held the same course that Columbus had taken; but standing thence to the west, they discovered a new and extensive province, and proceeded a considerable way along its coast. This was the modern Yucatan. No settlement was at that time effected, the voyagers contenting themselves with exploring portions of the shore.



OR some time after this discovery, the Spaniards were deterred from availing themselves of it, by the disasters experienced by Ponce de Leon, and other adventurers. The prudent administration of Diego Velasquez in Cuba had rendered it one of the most flourishing of Spanish settlements; and many persons from other colonies were allured thither. As the ocean stretching to the west of Cuba had not hitherto been explored, this circumstance invited adventurers to attempt new discoveries. Instigated by the desire of obtaining sudden wealth by



JUAN DIAZ DE SOLIS.

deeds of daring, several officers who had served under Pedrarias, in Darien, entered into an association to undertake a voyage of discovery. Velasquez not only approved their design, but assisted in carrying it on—he and an opulent planter named Cordova, advancing the money to purchase three small vessels, with materials for traffic or war. On board of these a hundred and ten men embarked and sailed from St. Jago, February 8, 1517. On the twenty-first day after their departure, they reached Cape Catoche, the most eastern point of Yucatan. As they approached the shore, five canoes met them, bearing people clad in cotton garments—a circumstance that excited the wonder of the Spaniards. Cordova offered them small presents, and endeavoured to gain their good will. Though evidently amazed at their strange visitors, the Indians invited them with an appearance of cordiality, to visit their habitations. Accordingly the adventurers landed, and as they advanced into the country were struck by the sight of white stone houses. But they soon

found that if the people had made progress in improvement beyond their countrymen, they were likewise more artful and warlike. For though the cacique had received Cordova with many tokens of friendship, he had posted a considerable body of his subjects in ambush, behind a thicket, who, upon a signal given by him, rushed out and attacked the Spaniards with great boldness and some degree of martial order. Fifteen of the latter were wounded; but their fire-arms soon compelled the assailants to fly. Cordova regained his shipping and quitted the spot, carrying with him two natives, and the wealth of a small temple which he had plundered.

Continuing their course toward the west, without losing sight of the coast, they arrived, on the sixteenth day, at Campeachy. There they were received with more hospitality; but water beginning to fail, they proceeded along what was still thought to be an island, until they arrived at the mouth of a river at Potonchan. Here all the troops were landed in order to protect the sailors while filling the casks, but, notwithstanding this precaution, the natives rushed down upon them with such fury, and in such overwhelming numbers, that forty-seven Spaniards were killed upon the spot, and the remainder, with but a single exception, in some manner injured. The commander received twelve wounds; but he conducted the retreat with admirable skill and courage. On regaining their vessels, they immediately set sail for Cuba. During the passage thither, their wounds, exposed to a burning sun, brought on a sickness, which was increased to the most dreadful height by the want of water. Some died by the way, and the commander expired soon after arriving at Cuba.



THESE disasters did not discourage the Spaniards. The sight of gold wrought into curious shapes, the reports of nations advanced into civilization, and the hope of suddenly grasping a fortune, induced many to offer themselves for a new expedition. Velasquez fitted out four ships at his own expense. Two hundred and forty volunteers, among whom were men of rank and fortune, embarked in this enterprise. It was commanded by Juan de Grijalva, a young officer of tried courage, who was instructed to barter for gold, and, if possible, attempt a settlement. Sailing from St. Jago, (April 8, 1518,) he steered in a direction with the former expedition, but was driven by contrary currents to the island of Cozumel, the inhabitants of which fled at his approach. He again

put to sea, rounded Cape Catouche and reached Potonchan. Here he determined to land and avenge his fallen countrymen in such a manner as would strike terror among all the surrounding tribes. But, though he employed all his troops in this attempt, aiding them with some field-pieces, the Indians fought with such courage that a victory over them was gained with difficulty. The Spaniards then re-embarked, and continued their voyage. The beauty of the country and the novelty of Indian towns and cities excited their wonder and admiration. In the numerous villages scattered along the coast, many stone houses were observed, which at a distance appeared white and lofty. In the warmth of their feelings, they denominated the country New Spain, a name by which it was known in Europe for more than three centuries.

Proceeding to the southward, they found the natives more friendly, and at Guazaca they were perfumed with incense of gum-copal, and treated with the most flattering attentions. In six days, they exchanged European trinkets for curiously wrought ornaments of gold, worth fifteen thousand pesos. The Spaniards now learned, for the first time, the existence of Montezuma, the great monarch to whom this province and the neighbouring ones was subject. Re-embarking, Grijalva continued his course toward the west, and, on the 19th of June, landed on a small island, where he beheld, for the first time, the horrid spectacle of human victims offered to a deity. He named this spot the Isle of Sacrificios, and a neighbouring one San Juan de Ulua. From this place he despatched Pedro de Alvarado, one of his officers, to Velasquez, with a full account of his important discoveries, and all the treasure acquired by traffic with the natives. With the remaining vessels he proceeded along the coast to the river Panuco; but finding it impossible to plant a colony, he returned to Cuba, October 26, 1518.

Yucatan was conquered by the Spaniards soon after the overthrow of Montezuma's power by Cortes; its history, therefore, forms a part of that of Mexico till the year 1839, when symptoms of dissatisfaction with the policy of the Mexican republic began to be displayed by a party calling themselves *Rochelanos*. These demanded either a more liberal central government, or entire independence. In order to effect the latter, they secretly favoured the movements of a faction calling themselves *Federalists*. On the 29th of May, a militia captain, named Santiago Iman, raised the revolutionary standard in the village of Tizimin, and declared for the Constitution



SANTIAGO IMAN.

of 1824. He then marched to Espita, the commandant of which had agreed to join him, but, on making a feint attack, the better to conceal his design, Iman found himself drawn into a snare, and immediately retreated to San Fernando. Here, at the end of two months, he was attacked by the commandant. The defenders ran away, the assailant entered in triumph, and immediately announced to his government, that by a great victory he had ended the revolt.

Iman now gathered around him a number of Indians, and endeavoured to insure their co-operation by a promise of exemption from religious contribution. The government then sent against him Colonel Roguena with six hundred men, who, after another "decisive victory," gained because the enemy ran away, entered the place in triumph. Partial quiet was preserved until February 11, 1840, when the insurgents attacked the city of Valladolid. Here were three hundred men under Lieutenant-colonel Arans. This officer appears to have possessed both talent and energy; but unfortunately, while marching against the enemy, he was killed. His troops immediately capitulated. A band of outlaws then took possession of the city and proclaimed the Constitution of 1824 to be in force. The influence of this proclamation soon became contagious. Towns, one after another, hailed the new order of things, and were strengthened by the capital itself. In June, Rivas, the commanding general, surrendered the province of Campeachy, and for a time the

country was thus actually separated from Mexico. A new state constitution was proclaimed on the 31st of March, 1841.

During the war between the United States and Mexico, Yucatan declared her independence of the latter power, and even discussed propositions of annexation to her more powerful sister republic. But the disorders consequent upon these acts had not yet subsided, when a far more formidable danger than Mexican oppression menaced the country. This was a general rising of the Indian population—an event almost unheard of in the annals of Europa-American nations. Early in 1848, all the interior settlements had been abandoned by the whites, and an army of sixty thousand Indians was desolating the country. Valladolid and Izamel, after being defended for a long while, were abandoned in March, and the citizens fled to Merida. The Yucatoes published a statement of their fearful condition, and earnestly invited other nations to help them. The whites have mainly recovered their position, and the country is now comparatively quiet. Notwithstanding her declaration of independence, Yucatan still continues a part of Mexico



YUCATAN HUT.



SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

CHAPTER VII.

CALIFORNIA.



THE term California was formerly applied exclusively to the narrow strip of land between the Pacific Ocean and the Californian Gulf. Now it designates the extensive country ranging from latitude $22^{\circ} 48'$ to 42° north, and between the 107° and 124° of west longitude. It is divided into Old, or Lower, California, and New, or Upper, California.

Old California was unknown to Europeans until 1534, at which time Hernando Cortes, the celebrated conqueror of Mexico, equipped a small fleet, took the command in person, discovered the Peninsula and Gulf of California, and ascended the latter about fifty leagues. He named it the Vermillion or Red Sea, and it was subsequently styled, by his countrymen, the Sea of Cortes. This voyage was

unfortunate. By storms and other disasters the conqueror of Mexico was not only prevented from planting a colony, but forced to retrace his course, and even to abandon the original design of the expedition—a north-west passage to the Old World.

Previous to this, and during the visit of Cortes to Spain, Nunez de Guzman had marched with an army from Mexico toward the north-west. In his progress, he collected a large quantity of gold, and received the submission of many caciques; but was finally stopped by a rugged mountainous country, which he named New Galicia. This had induced Cortes, prior to his own expedition, to fit out an armament at Acapulco, which he placed under the command of Hurtado de Mendoza; but violent storms, and the misconduct of the officers employed, defeated the objects of the expedition.

Six years after the discovery of California, the viceroy, Mendoza, sent an expedition to continue the observations of Cortes. The officers are said to have reached the fortieth degree of north latitude, where they observed snow-capped mountains on the coast; and, according to their own statement, met vessels with gilded yards, supposed to belong to China or Japan.



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

After this period, the burden of continental difficulties and South American conquests afforded the Spaniards but little opportunity to colonize the obscure provinces of the remote Pacific. The decline of maritime adventure in that nation also contributed to the neglect of California. The coast was visited, however, by Sir Francis Drake and other voyagers, and the northern coasts partially explored.

The buccaneers frequently touched upon it, and the neighbouring ocean seems to have been a frequent resort for whaling expeditions. Still, for more than a century, no settlement was attempted; and the interior of the country remained as little known as though the coast had never been touched by a foreign vessel.

But, notwithstanding this apathy with regard to colonization, a field was opened not long after the discovery, which, exciting that strongest of all motives, the love of gain, soon brought numerous visitors to the adjacent waters. This was the finding of a rich pearl oyster-bed on the coast. The pearls abound chiefly in the southern part of the peninsula, in the Bay of Seralvo, and around the islands.

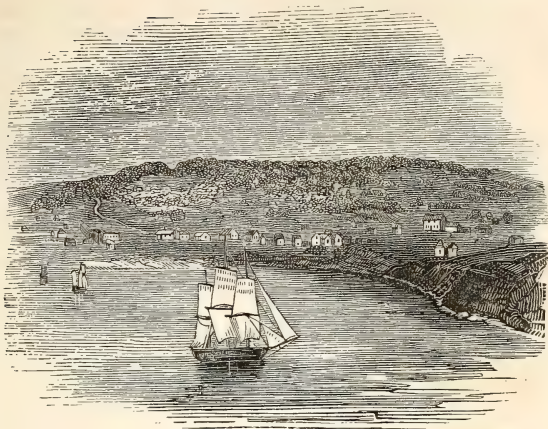
of Santa Cruz and San José. The most valuable pearls in the possession of the court of Spain, were found in 1615 and 1665, by the expeditions of Juan Iturbi and Bernal de Pinadero. In 1768 and 1769, a private soldier, named Juan Ocio, was enriched in a short time by fishing on the coast of Seralvo; but, since that period, the number of Californian pearls brought annually to market has been reduced almost to nothing. The Indians and negroes who followed the severe occupation of divers, were frequently drowned or devoured by sharks.



T length, in 1769, pursuant to the king's direction, Admiral Don Isidro Otondo undertook the conquest of California. He was accompanied by a number of Jesuit missionaries, under Father Eusebio Francisco Kino. The accounts of this undertaking are exceedingly meagre; but the general owed his ultimate success as much to the efforts of the ecclesiastics as to those of the soldiers. From it, the

commencement of the Spanish authority in this province is to be dated. The Jesuits settled in the most fertile provinces, and when the commotions occasioned by the appearance and designs of the white men had in some degree worn away, they entered ardently upon the trying task of proselyting the Indians. Persuasion and presents were the means commonly used; where these failed, force was resorted to. After conversion, each native was required to give ten years' faithful service to the missions, after which he was placed at liberty, and, on security of good behaviour, allotted a small piece of land for cultivation, and a few cattle. But they usually remained in the employment of the missions, having become attached to their masters and occupations. Their duties consisted chiefly in taking care of cattle, labouring on the farms, gardening, and household work. Some were taught trades, and others hired out to service. The police of the missions was strict, punishment was administered when required, and rewards were given for good behaviour.

Such was the patriarchal manner in which California existed for an entire century. Remote from the source of its civilization, it felt little of the influence of the parent state, and, indeed, remained almost unknown either to Spain or Europe. This accounts for the conflicting statements entertained, for a long period of time, con



MONTEREY. UPPER CALIFORNIA

cerning its soil, riches, climate, and capabilities. During the revolts in 1836, the Indians were mostly cast off from the missions, and deprived of the fruits of their labour. The country was visited, in 1841, by Captain Wilkes, at the head of the United States Exploring Expedition, who found it to be destitute of all government. "The Indians," he says, "are now committing acts of violence on the whites; they are becoming daily more daring, and have rendered a residence in single farm-houses, or *estancias*, not without danger. In looking at the state in which these poor Indians have been left, it cannot be denied but that they have cause to be dissatisfied with the treatment they have received."

New California appears first to have been discovered by Cobrillo, a Spanish adventurer. He saw the south coast in 1542, and sailed for a short distance towards the north. Thirty-six years after, (1578,) Sir Francis Drake went over the same ground, and pursued his discoveries much further northward. He called the country New Albion. In 1769, it was colonized by the Spaniards; and the Indians were converted principally through the efforts of the Jesuits; and, until 1836, remained a province of Mexico. In November of that year, the citizens of Monterey, the capital, took up arms,

expelled the Mexican garrison, and declared the province independent. A provisional government was established, similar in its general features to that of the United States.

California has taken an active part in the Mexican war, against the United States. The first military operations consequent to that event within the territory, were the result rather of accident than design.



CAPTAIN FREMONT, of the Corps of Topographical Engineers, was sent by the United States government on an expedition to the country lying beyond the Rocky Mountains. The avowed purpose of this command was to find a new pass to Oregon, and part of the route lay through the settled portion of California.

On the 29th of June, 1846, Fremont reached the neighbourhood of Monterey, in the upper province, where he halted his command, and proceeded along to the city, in order

to acquaint the authorities with his plans, and request permission to pass some time in the valley. Permission was granted; but, on reaching the valley of San Joaquin, he learned through Mr. Larkin, the United States agent, that General Castro was about to attack him with a considerable force. He then took post about thirty miles from the city, and, raising the national colours, informed the Californians that he would defend the place to the last. Castro, however, did not attack, and Fremont, after a tedious retreat, arrived (May 15, 1846) at the Tlamath lake. This place he soon left, in consequence of the appearance of hostile Indians. On retracing his steps to the Sacramento river, he ascertained that Castro was still in arms against him, and was even preparing an expedition against the Americans who had settled in the neighbourhood. In these circumstances, Captain Fremont considered himself authorized to attempt the complete conquest of California, and its annexation to the United States. This was on the 6th of June. War already existed between the United States and Mexico, but of this fact the captain had not yet been apprized.

The movements consequent to this resolution were rapid and brilliant. The garrison at Zanon was captured, together with nine

cannon and two hundred and fifty muskets. On the 25th of June, a part of Castro's army was attacked and completely routed. On the 4th of July, Fremont assembled his forces at Zanona, and declared the independence of the province.



MEANWHILE, the American government had sent a fleet, under Commodore Sloat, to the coast of California, and ordered General Kearny, with a large force, to invade the country, after having conquered New Mexico. The former officer, on anchoring his fleet, landed a considerable party, and took possession of Monterey. Here he was joined by Fremont, with a hundred and sixty men, the captain being in close pursuit of De Castro. At the same time, Commodore Stockton landed on the coast, and proposed a plan to intercept the retreating general, by sailing down the coast and landing the troops at a proper point. Castro, however, evaded his pursuers and marched to Mexico. After this fruitless expedition, Stockton, in company with Fremont and Mr. Larkin, entered Ciudad de los Angeles, and renewed the declaration of freedom for California. Soon after, General Kearny arrived and assumed the direction of affairs.

But the ease with which the Californias had been subjected to foreign influence, was but the calm during which the storm gathers its energy. Officers had been appointed in all the principal towns, and entered upon the discharge of duty as though in one of the United States; but they were soon to learn that something more than a sudden revolution is necessary to insure to a people the blessings of republican government. On the 15th of January, 1847, the whole province rose in arms against the new system. At night, Governor Bent with twenty-four men were massacred at Fernando de Taos. Other murders took place at the same time, and in a few days a large number of the Californians were marching upon Santa Fé. The commandant of that place, Colonel Sterling Price, placed himself at the head of four hundred men, and advanced to meet the enemy. He came up with them, placed to the number of fifteen hundred, in a strong position, near Covoda. Notwithstanding the disparity of force, he gained a complete victory, killing or wounding thirty-six of their men, and losing but eight of his own—six of them wounded. A few days after this battle, (January 29th,) a hundred and eighty of Price's men, under Captain Burgwein, defeated a num-

ber of Mexicans, strongly posted at La Joya. Their total loss, exclusive of prisoners, was eighty. On the 3d of February, the victorious Americans entered triumphantly into the town of Fernando de Taos.

The Mexican and Californian forces now retired to the village of Puebla de Taos, a strong position, whose churches and other buildings were admirably situated for defence. An attack was made by the Americans on the afternoon of the 3d, and renewed on the following morning. At nine o'clock, a cannon and two howitzers were opened upon the buildings, and, after a cannonade of two hours, two separate charges were made under Captains Burgwein and Angreycy; the former was killed. The Americans attempted to scale the walls but failed. They then stormed the church through a breach in the wall, fired it, and commenced vigorous measures for the reduction of the remaining buildings. Hostilities were terminated, however, by the submission of the inhabitants. The garrison lost about three hundred killed and wounded; the Americans fifty-four.



GENERAL KEARNY, during these movements of Colonel Price, had marched from Santa Fé with a considerable force, and, after crossing plains, rivers, mountains, and deserts, came up with the enemy, (December 6, 1846,) at San Pascual, Upper California. They numbered a hundred and sixty, under Andreas Pico. The Americans attacked with twelve dragoons, under Captain Johnston, fifty under Captain Moore, mounted on mules, twenty volunteers under Captains Gibson and Gillespie, and two mountain-howitzers under Lieutenant Davidson.

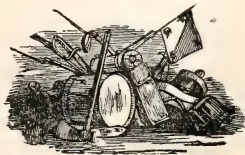
At break of day, (December 6,) Captain Johnston made a furious charge upon the enemy with his advanced guard, and was soon after followed by the dragoons. The enemy gave way. They were followed by Captain Moore, and the cavalry mounted on mules. After retreating about half a mile, the enemy, who were all well mounted, suddenly wheeled round and attacked the captain whose

men were some distance in advance of the others. On account of their vastly superior numbers, few of the advance remained untouched. Captain Moore and Lieutenant Hammond were lanced, with several other inferior officers. The Mexicans held the ground for some minutes, but were finally repulsed. Besides the officers already mentioned, the Americans lost Captain Johnston and sixteen men killed; and sixteen wounded, including General Kearny, Captains Gibson and Gillespie, and other officers.

On the 7th, Kearny resumed his march, and, after being joined by Commodore Stockton of the navy, again encountered the enemy, (January 8, 1847,) at the San Gabriel. Their force is estimated by the general at six hundred men, and four field-pieces, under Governor Flores. The Americans crossed the river in face of the enemy, stormed the heights, drove the enemy into the open plain, and after an action of an hour and a half, remained victors of the hard-fought field. Their loss had been trifling.

On the 9th, the Americans continued their march as far as the plains of Mesa. Here the enemy, who, during the day, had hung on their front and flanks, opened their artillery, which was answered by that of the Americans. After hovering around for about two hours, and occasionally skirmishing, the Mexicans concentrated their forces, and charged Kearny's left flank, but were repulsed. The next day, the Americans entered Ciudad de los Angeles, without opposition.

Kearney and Stockton now took possession of the province in the name of the United States, and published a proclamation regulating the government and other matters of both Californias. By the treaty of 1848, between Mexico and the United States, Upper California and New Mexico were ceded to the latter power, and from that period the history of these countries is included in that of the United States.





PONCE DE LEON.

CHAPTER VIII.

FLORIDA.

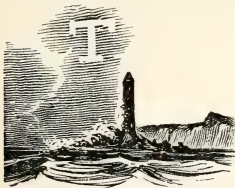


ALTHOUGH the southern extremity of Florida lies so near to the West Indies, yet its existence was unknown to the Spaniards for a considerable time after the voyages of Columbus. It is supposed to have been visited by Sebastian Cabot during his celebrated voyage along the American coast; but the principal records of this expedition being lost, precludes the possibility of establishing this opinion. The hope of reaching the East Indies, or of discovering empires glittering with oriental luxury, led the Spanish adventurers in a southern or south-west course; and it was not till Terra Firma had been examined, and Nunez de Balboa had discovered the Pacific, that the Spaniards even suspected the existence of the region now forming the United States.

The glory of discovering Florida belongs to Juan Ponce de Leon.

an adventurer who had accompanied Columbus in his second voyage. He had then won such reputation as to be intrusted with a share of the government of Hispaniola, and subsequently with the conquest of Porto Rica. But his claims as governor conflicting with those of Columbus, he withdrew, and obtained, in compensation, Bimini, one of the Bahamas, which lay nearest to the continent.

At this place, the veteran received intelligence which decided his future destiny. An opinion was then prevalent among the Caribs that in one of the West Indies a fountain existed whose waters could impart the gift of perpetual youth. In that age of romantic and chivalrous adventure, of new-found worlds and empires, it is not wonderful that the eager knight should embrace almost any opinion concerning the mysterious recesses of the lands daily unfolded to view. Ponce de Leon immediately embarked in search of the wonderful fount. Nearly all the northern islands of the Archipelago were visited, and the eagerness of the voyager increased in proportion as the fairy waters eluded his grasp.



HE industrious search after this chimerical object was rewarded in a manner totally unexpected. On the 27th of March, 1512, the Spaniards came in sight of an extensive country, hitherto unknown. It being Easter, (*Pascua Florida*,) they named it Florida; and having landed (April 8) near the pre-

sent site of St. Augustine, they were delighted with its splendid vegetation and magnificent forests. Elated with the great discovery, De Leon, after sailing down the eastern coast to the southern point, repaired to Porto Rico, and thence to Spain, where he laid before the king the particulars of the new country, and obtained permission to conquer and rule it.

Had Ponce de Leon been able to sail immediately on his expedition, his fate and that of the expedition would probably have been different. But circumstances delayed his preparations so long, that nine years elapsed before he again appeared in the neighbourhood of Florida. He was then broken down by war and misfortunes; and probably his skill and vigour in planning and executing military achievements had been much diminished.

The point at which he landed is uncertain His intention seems



PONCE DE LEON WOUNDED.

to have been to found a permanent colony ; but in the midst of his preparations he was attacked by a large party of Indians, his men routed, and himself severely wounded by an arrow. Discouraged by so unexpected a catastrophe, the survivors regained the vessel, and sailed for Cuba, where their leader died of his wound.

Spain now claimed, under the title of Florida, the whole coast from Cape Sable to Labrador. Her pretensions, of course, were never enforced ; but Spanish vessels continued to trade along the coast as far north as Virginia, mainly for the purpose of stealing Indians, who were afterwards sold as slaves. A company was even formed for this infamous purpose ; and under their auspices, Lucas Vasques de Ayllon was sent, about the year 1520, to Florida. He discovered South Carolina, and sailed up the Combahee river, which he denominated Jordan. The natives received him most cordially, bringing provisions and other supplies ; but after decoying great numbers on board, he detained them, and the ships sailed for the West Indies. Before reaching their destination, one of the ships sunk ; and nearly all the captives in the other died. A second ex-

pedition, conducted by the same leader, was attacked by the Indians and almost annihilated.

Some time after these voyages, Stephen Gomez, in attempting a north-west passage to India, reached, as is supposed, the latitude of 40° or 41° north, which coast was denominated, by the early Spaniards, the Land of Gomez.

An adventurer now appeared who seemed worthy to accomplish that in which the unfortunate Ponce de Leon had failed. Pamphilo de Narvaez, the rival of Cortes, in the conquest of Mexico, determined to attempt the conquest of Florida. For this purpose, he was invested with the office of *adelantado*, which gave him full power to subjugate, settle, and rule the coveted region.

In June, 1527, Narvaez sailed from St. Lucas with five vessels and six hundred men; but, before leaving Cuba, (February 20, 1528,) where he had stopped to refit, desertion and other causes had reduced the armament to four vessels, four hundred men, and eighty horses. He reached Florida in April, and landed in sight of an



LANDING OF NARVAEZ.

Indian village, probably near the bay of Spiritu Santo. Here he erected the emperor's standard, and claimed the country for Spain; after which the village was entered, and such things seized as the Spaniards had need of. The Indians fled into the interior; and it soon became neces-

sary for the invaders to pause and consider on their future course. Alvaro Nunez, narrator of the expedition, advised the commander to re-embark, and sail onwards till he should find a fertile country, and a safe station to retreat on, should it be necessary. But Narvaez determined to push at once into the interior; and, on the 1st of May, at the head of three hundred men, forty of whom were cavalry, he commenced his march through Florida. After passing through various tribes of Indians, some friendly and some hostile, exploring forests, swimming broad rivers, and wading through



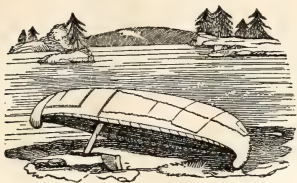
NARVAEZ IN FLORIDA.

marshes, they arrived, at the end of fifty-seven days, near a village which the guides pointed out to them as the seat of a flourishing empire. The food they had brought with them was now entirely consumed—a circumstance which gave additional enthusiasm to the feelings with which they hailed the village, as the fulfilment of their brilliant expectations.

Alvaro took possession of the place; and, after a series of skirmishes with the inhabitants, learning that a town named Aute, abounding in maize, lay nine days' journey to the southward, the dispirited adventurers directed their steps thither. The difficulties of the way were greater than any they had yet experienced; but they reached their destination, and secured a valuable store of maize. Another day's journey brought them to a river, opening upon a broad arm of the sea, probably the Bay of Appalachicola. Here, while gazing upon the broad extent of waters, and reflecting on the wilderness through which they had passed, the loneliness and utter wretchedness of their situation burst upon them; and many a bold heart, which for years had struggled for glory even in the jaws of fate, now sighed like a child for home.

The situation of the party was indeed distressing. A third of their number had perished, and disease was rapidly thinning the remainder. To recede into the interior would be folly; and it was impossible to remain alive on the coast. No resource remained but

the almost hopeless one of constructing barks to sail along the coast. Narvaez and his companions set themselves diligently to work, and between the 4th of August and 20th of September, five boats were built, each capable of carrying fifty men. They were constructed of light wood, and held together by twisted oakum and the gum of trees. The shirts of the Spaniards served as sails.



After embarking, they seized five Indian canoes, which materially improved their condition; and at the end of more than a month, landed at a village where they were hospitably received. At midnight, an attack was made by the inhabitants, and the invaders were forced to their boats with loss. They met a like reception at another island. The provisions were now nearly exhausted; and the canoes in such a miserable condition that they could scarcely be got forward. In this forlorn situation, Narvaez abandoned his brave companions, and, pushing ahead in the best vessel, left Alvaro and the others to take care of themselves. He is supposed to have perished at sea.

Thus deserted by the man who had led them to ruin, Alvaro, after a great variety of adventures, finally led a small remnant of his companions, by a circuitous route, across the Mississippi and Rio Grande, to Mexico. He was well received at Culiazzan, by Governor Diaz, and also at the city of Mexico; and having there recruited himself by a stay of two months, he set sail, and arrived at Lisbon, August 9, 1537.

Alvaro found his own country intoxicated with the recent acquisition of an empire, which had realized all the golden dreams that had cost so much blood and anxiety. Peru, discovered, conquered, and rifled by Pizarro and Almagro, with a handful of adventurers, had given a new impulse to adventure. Ferdinand de Soto, a principal actor in this grand drama, had returned to Spain, laden with fame and wealth; and, on hearing of Ponce de Leon's adventures, he solicited permission to conquer Florida, and was immediately constituted adelantado.

At this juncture, Alvaro arrived with his doleful tale; but nothing could damp the ambition of De Soto. His fame drew together a vast company of adventurers, from whom he selected nine hundred



ALMAGRO.

and fifty of approved character ; and on the 6th of April, 1538, embarked in ten vessels for Cuba. He there spent a year in preparation, during which time he was joined by Vasco Porcalho, a veteran who, like himself, had gained an immense fortune by his sword. He was appointed lieutenant-general.

Soto reached Florida May 25, 1538, and, on the 30th, landed in the bay of Spiritu Santo. Four individuals were sent out to ascertain the fate of the former expedition ; but these were seized by a neighbouring cacique and condemned to lingering death. Other difficulties followed in such rapid succession, that Porcalho became discouraged and returned to Cuba.

It was unfortunate for De Soto that an expedition had preceded him in Florida. He came with a sincere desire not to provoke the Indians by acts of cruelty ; and as he had the reputation of being one of the most humane of all the Peruvian conquerors, there is room to believe that his desire would have been attended with the wished-for harmony. In fact, the measures that he adopted at land-



SOTO APPOINTED ADELANTADO BY THE COUNCIL OF THE INDIES

ing were admirably conducive to this effect. But the natives still remembered the perfidious cruelty of Narvaez; and they looked upon the new-comers only as a fresh band of robbers and murderers. Had Florida, like Mexico, been under one great government, this difficulty would not have been so formidable; for then Soto could have beaten its army, entered the capital, and been master of the country. But he struggled against a multitude of fierce petty tribes, who, although offering no point at which an effective blow could be struck, never left him master of more than the spot on which his army stood.

After the departure of Porcalho, Soto commenced his march into the interior—a march which has no parallel in the history of American adventure. The people either met him with showers of arrows or fled into the interior, leaving the region through which he passed little better than a barren waste. In the district of Acali, his men were attacked, while crossing a large stream, by the entire population. The chieftain of Vitachuco laid a plot for their utter



SOTO

extermination ; but intelligence of it was received through Ortiz, so that, on the day appointed, the Spaniards were armed and prepared for the onset. When it was about to begin, a party surrounded and seized the cacique. The savages, undismayed, rushed on with loud shouts ; and Soto rashly galloping into the crowd, his horse fell pierced with three arrows. The rider himself would have been torn to pieces but for the exertions of his cavalry. The flower of the Indian warriors now plunged into a large pond, where they kept themselves afloat, and though the invaders surrounded it six deep, they refused to surrender. In the morning, they were captured, when almost dead with cold and fatigue.

Notwithstanding the violence of this attack, the Spanish general extended a general pardon to the offenders, and even admitted the cacique to his table. Soon after, however, he apportioned the captives as servants among his men—a measure in the highest degree impolitic, since nothing could have been more mortifying to those free chieftains than the idea of servitude.

A sudden attack was made upon the Spaniards, while at dinner, during which several of the Europeans were killed, and others severely injured ; but they finally mastered their infuriated opponents.

Soto now abandoned, in a great measure, his conciliatory course, seizing all Indians he met with, and compelling them to act as ser

vants. It should be recorded, however, to his honour, that, notwithstanding the scenes of wholesale butchery to which he had been familiarized in Peru, he never imitated them in Florida; and, indeed, rarely trifled with human life, except in battle.

On reaching Appalachen, Soto seized the cacique, hoping thereby to compel the inhabitants to submission through fear for their sovereign's safety. The chief was of a most unwieldy bulk; but, notwithstanding this circumstance, and the vigilance with which he was guarded, his subjects managed to steal him away, and fled hastily into the interior. Soto was mortified, but not discouraged. His thoughts still dwelt on some sunny clime where temples, and walls and princely palaces glittered with burnished gold, where the same precious metal sparkled amid the sands of limpid streams, and where the very air was soft and subduing with the copious gushings of priceless gums and balsams. For this *El Dorado*, the fatal syren which had misled so many noble spirits, he had sacrificed home, fortune, comfort, and health; and still, as it glided from his grasp, he bore up against experience and the convictions of common sense, and reached onward the more eagerly, in proportion as his efforts appeared useless. The reports of some captains, who had seen, in great abundance, a yellow and a white metal, seemed to keep up the illusion; and Soto determined to push forward with all possible alacrity. In passing a rather barren region, in the present State of Georgia, his men were reduced to such misery for want of provisions, as gladly to devour the dogs presented them by the natives. On arriving at the Savannah river, they learned that a kingdom, named *Cofaciqui*, lay on the opposite shore, and that its sovereign was a woman. Ere long, an ornamented bark was seen moving from the other side, containing the princess herself. She enchanted them by her beauty, grace, and courtesy; presented a triple row of pearls to the general, and carried the whole party across the river in canoes. On being interrogated concerning the yellow and white metal, she instantly produced specimens; but how great was the disappointment of the adventurers to find the anticipated gold nothing but a gilded stone, and the silver white clay, or quartz. It is probable, however, that the stone, considered worthless by the Spaniards, was really gold ore.

Sick with repeated vexations, many of the adventurers expressed a wish to give up the search for wealth, and settle in their present quarters. To this, Soto would not listen, but departed in the begin-

ning of May. Considering it impossible, however, to march through the country without being attacked, he seized the queen, and obliged her to issue orders that the Spaniards should be supplied with whatever her territory afforded. She escaped near the frontier.



THE Spaniards now passed through the Cherokee region, and over a barren territory, to the land of Coosa. Here they were met by the cacique in the most friendly manner—a kindness requited by seizing his person. The same system was practised on the cacique of Tuscaloosa, a person of gigantic stature, fierce, proud, and ruling over extensive territories. On finding himself a prisoner, he dissembled his real sentiments, until the invaders had reached Mauvila, (Mobile,) a large town, strongly palisaded, and containing numerous families. Soto, having entered by invitation, was entertained with dances and other kinds of gayety; yet, while surrounded with these flattering demonstrations, he received notice that the houses were filled with armed warriors, collected from every quarter; that the children had been removed, and even the women, except many who had also prepared for battle. Strange to say, in the face of this evidence, and notwithstanding his past bitter experience, the general contented himself by merely directing his followers to be on their guard.

He was soon undeceived. Order was succeeded by uproar, terror, and death. Yells from thousands of infuriated savages appalled the stoutest heart, and clouds of arrows darkened the day. Unable to breast the storm, Soto shouted to his men to fall back—a movement which continued, under galling showers, until they reached their horses. One after another was left behind, the victim of Indian vengeance, and many of the survivors were pierced by arrows. But once on horseback, they regained their superiority, and easily drove back their pursuers. The palisade being strong against a force without artillery, some time elapsed before the gate could be forced open. Even then, the Indians were found so strongly posted in the houses, that they could not be overcome except by the dreadful expedient of firing the town. The scene that followed was terrible. In that warm climate, houses constructed entirely of reeds and branches, flamed like tinder, and suddenly, as by magic, both armies were involved in volumes of fire and smoke. As the natives rushed forward, many fell a sacrifice either to the flames or the sword

Those who escaped to the fields endeavoured to renew the battle, and even the women lent their assistance; they were, however, finally obliged to seek safety in a general flight. Different accounts state their loss at from two thousand five hundred to ten thousand. The Spaniards had eighteen killed, a number severely wounded, and all their baggage consumed in the flames.

After this melancholy affair, Soto fought his way into the great valley of the Mississippi, hitherto unknown, and reached Chicasaw, the small capital of the warlike nation of the Chicasaws. Here he passed the winter. On the return of spring, he had apparently removed all cause of dispute with the Indians, whom he now requested to lend him two hundred of their number to carry his baggage. A storm, however, was about to burst upon him, of which he was little aware. The Indians had long been seeking an opportunity for surprise, and now taking advantage of a dark, stormy night, passed the Spanish sentinels, penetrated, undiscovered, into their cantonments and set them on fire. At dead of night, the troops were roused from slumber, by the crackling of flames and the yells of their assailants. They would probably have been entirely cut off; but that the horses rushing with wild neighings from place to place, were mistaken for mounted troops, and caused the Chicasaws to fly in disorder. Eleven Spaniards were killed, fifty horses, and nearly all their hogs. The clothes which had escaped at Mauvila were burned, and the iron armour damaged.

In this forlorn condition, the Spaniards again pushed forward, until their progress was arrested by the Mississippi. This great stream is accurately described by the survivors as more than a mile broad, rapid, muddy, extremely deep, and with many large trees floating on its surface. Soto's passage being opposed, it was twenty days before he could construct barges to contain his men.

It would be tedious to follow the intrepid Soto through the whole of this astonishing expedition. He appears to have wandered far north, into what is now the state of Missouri, everywhere toiling and fighting, amid dangers apparently insurmountable. At Autamque (Utiangue) on the Upper Washita, he passed his fourth dreary winter. In the spring, his condition was so wretched, that he determined on the measure from which his mind had so long revolted, of returning to the coast, and seeking reinforcements from Cuba or Mexico. He, therefore, hastily descended the Washita to its juncture with the Red River, and the latter stream to its conflu-



SOTO DISCOVERING THE MISSISSIPPI

ence with the Mississippi. Here he found himself in the territory of Gauchoya, which contained a brave and numerous population; his men being reduced to less than five hundred, and the horses to forty. He, therefore, announced himself as the child of the sun; and taking advantage of their astonishment at seeing themselves in a mirror, he announced that that glass would display to him whatever they did at any distance, and thus detect any plot which might be formed against him. He was now informed that the sea was yet far off; and the road thither greatly obstructed by streams and entangled woods. Amid these anxieties and distresses he was seized with fever, which closed, in a few days, his earthly career

The death of the commander who had shared with them so many

toils, and whose voice had been their rallying power in hours of darkness, fell with stunning force on his little bard. Moscoso, his successor, endeavoured to conceal the event from the Indians, pretending that the general had merely gone on a visit to heaven, whence he would quickly return. Lest an ordinary burial might lead to other conclusions, it was determined to sink the body in the Mississippi. At dead of night, with nothing around but a few broken men, the silent stars, and the rolling flood, the chivalric Soto was committed to his watery grave. He who had made captive the mighty Inca of Peru, who, to grasp an empire's wealth, had battled among tens of thousands, and whose fame had drawn to his banner the most splendid army hitherto beheld in the New World was robbed by fortune, even of that little spot where friends could console themselves by reflecting that they wept over his remains. After his death, the adventurers wandered about for a long while over an immense tract of country, and finally constructed boats, descended the Mississippi, and sailed to Panuco. Of the entire company that had sailed from Cuba, only three hundred and eleven were left. After marching four years over five thousand miles of savage and hostile regions, they had achieved nothing, nor left even a vestige of their route, save the track of blood by which it had been too often stained.

Thus, the first three Spanish expeditions to Florida did not establish for that nation one single fort, notwithstanding that more blood and treasure had been expended on them than on the combined outfits of Columbus, Cortes, and Pizarro. Such reverses diminished the attractions of Florida to Spanish eyes; and the idea of colonizing it seems to have been for some time abandoned. A Dominican missionary, however, named Cancelló, visited the country for the purpose of converting the Indians, and received ample encouragement from government; but he and his companions were massacred. The Spaniards, however, continued to claim Florida, and even the whole of North America.

It was not to be expected that so preposterous a claim would long remain undisputed by the more powerful European nations. Francis I., the great rival of the Spanish emperor, was ambitious of establishing a colony in North America, which might act as a check to his antagonist's power in that quarter; and with this view, he supplied Giovanni Verazzano, a noble Florentine, with four vessels for America. This adventurer, after being driven back by a storm in



VERAZZANO

tited his fleet, and engaged in some successful naval operations on the Spanish coast. He was then given command of the *Dolphin*, with fifty-eight men, provisioned for eight months, to prosecute his original plan of discovery. After encountering a severe tempest, he came, in the middle of March, upon a coast supposed to be that of North Carolina. After sailing along the coast for some time in search of a harbour, he landed in the vicinity of Cape Fear, and held some friendly intercourse with the natives. He coasted what is now Virginia and the Middle States, sailed up the Hudson, touched at Martha's Vineyard, and other portions of New England, visited Nova Scotia, and seems to have gone as far north as Labrador; but his provisions being exhausted, he was obliged to sail for France. Verazzano subsequently made another voyage to America, where he was killed by a party of the natives.

After the death of Francis I., the celebrated Admiral Coligni determined to found a settlement in America, which might afford an asylum to his Protestant brethren, whom persecution obliged to flee from their own country. In 1562, he furnished John Ribault of Dieppe, an experienced seaman, with two vessels, and directions to reach the mouth of the river called, by Ayllon, the Jordan, (Cambahee.) Steering in too low a latitude, that navigator reached the St Johns and discovered other rivers which he named after those of



ADMIRAL COLIGNI.

France. The scenery at Port Royal so delighted him that he landed and chose it as the site of his colony. Having erected a fort and placed the settlement in a promising condition, Ribault left twenty six men and returned to France for reinforcements and supplies. Unfortunately, the new governor, Albert, was a rash and tyrannical officer; who, finding it difficult to maintain authority where all thought themselves nearly equal, enforced it in the most violent manner. He addressed them in opprobrious language, hanged one with his own hand, and threatened others with the same fate. Mutiny was the consequence. The commander was put to death, and Nicholas Barre, being appointed in his stead, soon restored tranquillity. In consequence of the great civil war in France, no reinforcements reached the little colony; and the colonists at length constructed a brigantine to return to their own country. The slender stock of provisions was soon exhausted, and after being reduced to the last extremity, they were picked up by an English vessel.

Some time elapsed before Coligni could resume his scheme of colonization; but, in 1564, he succeeded in fitting out three vessels, abundantly supplied, and commanded by René Laudonniere, an able companion of Ribault. Sailing round the Canaries and West Indies,



SATURIOVA SHOWING LAUDONNIERE RIBAUT'S MONUMENT.

he reached the St. John's river, and determined there to stop and settle. He was cordially received by Saturiova, the Indian cacique, who, flattered by the deference shown him by the French, led Laudonniere to the monument erected by Ribault, which had been decorated with flowers and supplied with ample provisions for the new visitors. A fort named La Carolina was erected, and expeditions sent up the river, where small quantities of gold and silver were seen. Reports were likewise received of a mountainous country in the interior where these metals abounded. These illusory prospects diverted the colonists from more sober pursuits; and, in a short time, a number of the more reckless, seized with a sudden desire to grow rich, formed the criminal resolution of becoming pirates. Confining the commander, they rifled his stores, and setting sail captured a richly laden vessel, having the governor of Jamaica on board. They imprudently sailed to that island, where they were surrounded and one of their vessels captured. The others were obliged, through want of food, to return to the settlement, where Laudonniere condemned four of the ringleaders to be executed.

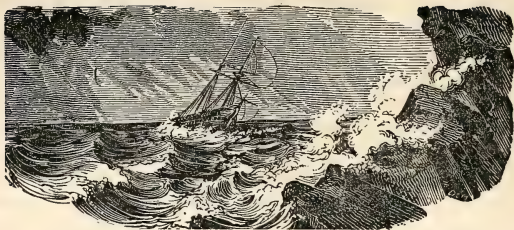
Meanwhile, the colonists neglected agriculture, and continued the pursuit after unknown treasures. They were soon obliged to depend for food entirely on the Indians, a miserable resource, particularly in Florida. Dispirited by so dreary a situation, they began to construct vessels to return home; and, although cheered by a visit, and a liberal supply of provisions from Sir John Hawkins, they did not intermit their task. But when on the point of sailing, (August 28, 1565,) several ships were observed approaching. It



SIR JOHN HAWKINS.

men, and repaired to the river St. Augustine. He there founded a settlement, considered the oldest town now in the United States, and forthwith prepared for operations against the heretic French.

Ribault, on learning the arrival of this formidable enemy, thought it most advisable to become the assailant without delay, before they could fortify their position. This conduct has been censured, but perhaps too much with reference to the fatal event. Leaving Laudonniere with eighty-five men in the fort, he sailed on the 8th of September, and arrived on the 10th at the mouth of the St. Augustine; but was there overtaken by a tremendous storm, which drove him far out to sea. Menendez, concluding that this expedition must have comprised the flower of the French troops, and that those left in the fort were few in number, hastily formed the resolution to attack them. Selecting five hundred of his best men, he led them across a wild country, intersected by broad streams, swamps, and forests, encouraging them to proceed by an appeal to all the sentiments of honour and religion. On the fourth evening, the place was descried, but the night was spent in the neighbourhood, amid a dreadful tempest, which, while it inflicted severe suffering, also lulled the enemy's suspicions. At daybreak, the three gates of the fort were seen open, and only a single Frenchman outside, who was lured into the camp and killed. Menendez then ordered his followers to rush forward, and enter before any discovery could be made. But a soldier, chancing to be on the rampart, gave the alarm; though, before Laudonniere could be roused, the enemy were in the fort, and had commenced an indiscriminate massacre. That chief, with several companions, leaped from the wall, ran into the woods, and, after wandering some time, found a little bark, in which, under severe want and imminent perils, they made their way to Bristol. Spanish writers assert, that after the slaughter had continued some time, an



RIBAUT WRECKED.

order was issued to spare the women and children, and that, while two hundred perished, seventy were saved.

Ribault, meanwhile, after being driven out to sea, saw his vessels completely wrecked among the rocks in the Bahama Channel. He escaped on shore with nearly all his men; but their condition was most deplorable, and, in endeavouring to reach their settlement by a march of three hundred miles, through a barren country, the most extreme hardships were endured. At length, on the ninth day, they beheld the river, and the fort on the opposite side; but what was their dismay to see on the ramparts Spanish colours flying! Their leader made a solemn pause before he could resolve to place any trust in men known to be imbued with the most ferocious bigotry. Seeing, however, no other hope, he sent two of the party to represent that their sovereigns were at peace; that, agreeably to instructions, they had strictly avoided interfering with any of their settlements; they asked only food and a vessel to convey them home. Their reception is very differently reported. According to the French, it was most kind, and ample pledges of safety were given. The Spaniards, on the contrary, allege that Menendez acquainted them with his object, and the bloody treatment he had given to their countrymen; but added, that if they would lay down their arms, and place themselves at his mercy, he would do with them whatever God in his grace might suggest. We cannot, however, believe that without some more positive pledge, Ribault would have agreed to surrender. Having delivered their arms, his men were conveyed across the river by thirty at a time. They were dismayed to find themselves bound two and two together, with their hands behind their backs; but this, they were assured, was only a temporary precaution. A

length, they were drawn up in front of the castle, when the Spanish chief with his sword drew a line round them on the sand, and on a signal given, the soldiers commenced the work of slaughter, with every excess of cruelty and indignity; the military band playing the whole time to drown the cries for mercy and the shrieks of the dying. Ribault, amid vain remonstrances, was struck in the back and fell covered with wounds. When the work of blood was finished, the assassins suspended to a tree a number of the mangled limbs, attaching the inscription, "Not because they are Frenchmen. but because they are heretics and enemies of God."

This dismal tragedy, when announced in France, gave birth to a mingled sentiment of grief and rage, accompanied by a loud cry for vengeance. These feelings were the more deep among the Huguenots, from the suspicion that they were not shared by the sovereign Charles IX., who was closely united with Philip in relentless enmity to the Protestant name. Yet a remonstrance was presented from fifteen hundred widows and orphans, calling on him to avenge this dreadful deed, and vindicate the honour of his country. The king made only formal remonstrances, and accepted a superficial apology; but there was a spirit in the nation itself, which, independently of his will, provided the means of punishment.



DOMINIQUE DE GOURGUES was universally distinguished in that age as a daring warrior. He had fought successfully both against the Spaniards and Turks, by the former of whom he had been held some time a prisoner, treated with the utmost indignity, and compelled to work as a galley slave. On receiving

intelligence of the Floridan catastrophe, his own wrongs, together with those of his countrymen, took full possession of his mind; and he devoted his whole energies to the work of vengeance. By selling his little property, and borrowing from friends, he equipped three ships, with two hundred and thirty soldiers and sailors, mostly chosen adherents, who had often conquered along with him. Carefully concealing his object, he obtained a license for the slave-trade, and sailed on the 22d of August, 1567; but on approaching the Cape de Verd islands, he changed his course, and stood across the Atlantic. It was not before reaching the western point of Cuba, that he unfolded to the whole party their dreadful destination

Some were disposed to shrink; but, being persuaded by the rest they at length joined in a unanimous consent.

De Gourgues, in sailing along the coast of Florida, passed imprudently near to San Matheo, of which he was warned by his squadron, who had found themselves saluted as Spaniards; whereupon he hastened to another river fifteen leagues distant, and landed as secretly as possible. Finding the natives as usual imbued with deadly hostility towards the subjects of Philip, he engaged their co-operation; and learning that the enemy had built two small forts, he made a rapid march and spent the night at a short distance from them. In the morning, he was alarmed to see the whole garrison in motion on the ramparts; but they had assembled from some accidental cause, and soon withdrew. The French then advanced through a thick wood, which brought them almost close to one of the smaller forts. On emerging from the forest, they were seen, the alarm was given, and two guns fired; but, rushing forward with wild impetuosity, they scaled the ramparts, an Indian chief being foremost; the garrison, seized with terror, ran out in every direction, and were nearly all killed or taken. Those in the next station followed their example, and soon shared their fate; but the main fortress was still untouched, and defended by troops far more numerous than the assailants. A small party, however, having rashly sallied out, were surrounded and nearly cut off; whereupon the whole body, struck with the general panic, at once abandoned their stronghold, and sought safety in the woods. Being eagerly pursued, most of them were taken; and De Gourgues had given strict orders to bring in as many alive as possible. He then led them all together to the fatal tree on which the remains of his slaughtered countrymen yet hung, and having upbraided them in the strongest terms for their treachery and cruelty, he hanged them all; suspending a number of their bodies on the same trunk, and substituting for the former one the following inscription:—"Not because they are Spaniards, but because they are traitors, robbers, and murderers." Had this execution been confined to a few of the ringleaders, it might have been held as a just retribution; but being inflicted on so large a scale, it almost rivalled the atrocity which it was meant to avenge.

De Gourgues had not come with any intention of settlement. Embarking, therefore, with whatever was valuable in the forts, he sailed for Rochelle, and was received in that Protestant capital with the loudest acclamations. His reception at Bordeaux was equally

flattering; but it was very different at Paris, where Charles showed no little inclination to transmit his head to Philip, who loudly demanded it. Steps were even taken for bringing him to trial; but they were found so excessively unpopular, that it was deemed expedient to withdraw them, and allow him to retire into Normandy.

Amid many vicissitudes of fortune, Florida remained in the Spanish possession until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain. In 1781, Don Galvez conquered West Florida; and by the treaty of Paris, 1783, both Floridas were restored to Spain. In 1819, negotiations were commenced between the United States and Spain, which resulted in a treaty ceding the whole territory to the former country. It was ratified by Spain in October, 1820, and by the United States in the ensuing February. In July, General Jackson took formal possession of it, since which time its history is included in that of the United States.





JACQUES CARTIER.

CHAPTER IX.

CANADA UNDER THE FRENCH.



IN the year 1497, John Cabot and his son Sebastian reached the continent of North America, being the first Europeans who had touched there since the Northmen. In the following year Sebastian performed a most extensive exploratory voyage along the greater part of the eastern coast, from latitude 56° or 58° north, to Florida; and in 1517, he entered Hudson's Bay, with the hope of discovering a north-west passage to India. A mutiny of the crew obliged him to return.

After the return of the Cabots to Europe, and the death of their royal patron, Henry VII., the English grew careless of foreign discoveries; but the French entered upon them with all the enthusiasm



CARTIER TAKING POSSESSION OF NEW FRANCE.

necessary for success. Notwithstanding the difficulties under which Francis I. then laboured, he commissioned Giovanni Verazzano, a Florentine navigator, to explore the eastern shores of North America. In virtue of his discoveries, the coast from Carolina to Nova Scotia was claimed by the French monarch, and named New France. A second expedition under Verazzano was unfortunate; but ten years after, Jaques Cartier, a bold and able mariner, made two voyages, in the latter of which he ascended the St. Lawrence as far as the site of Montreal. In 1540, the same officer was employed under the Sieur de Roberval, who also sailed up the St. Lawrence, and erected a fort where Quebec now stands. The two leaders could not agree, and parted; but nine years after, while sailing to America with a similar design, Roberval and his brother perished, as is supposed, by shipwreck.

These failures, together with the distracted condition of France, withdrew the attention of government from schemes of transatlantic colonization. Yet the merchants of the great commercial towns had opened communications and even established posts for the prosecution of the fur trade; thus keeping alive the spirit of adventure until a more propitious season should occur for its development.



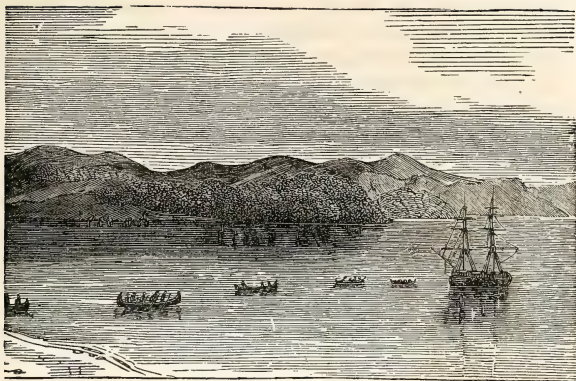
HENRY IV.

Accordingly, on the restoration of tranquillity under Henry IV., the Marquis de la Roche undertook to settle America on a large scale. Not only did he receive the countenance of the liberal monarch, but was also authorized to levy troops, make war, build forts and cities, enact laws, and to create lords, dukes, barons, and similar dignities. Several vessels were equipped, and crews provided, in part, from the prisons. Notwithstanding, however, these favourable auspices, the expedition proved a total

failure. Forty colonists were left on Sable Island; and being neglected, suffered such hardships as caused them to sigh even for their dungeons. In this deplorable condition they remained seven years, at which time they were visited by the Norman pilot, Chedotel, who found but twelve alive. These were taken to France and munificently rewarded by the king. Meanwhile, La Roche, being thwarted in his plans, died of vexation.

Some time after this ill-starred enterprise, two settlements were attempted by Chauvin of Rouen and Pontgravé of St. Malo. Some houses were built, and trade established with the Indians; but no permanent station was built.

These repeated failures could not damp the spirit of the French people; and now a more propitious era was dawning upon them. The Commander de Chaste, governor of Dieppe, planned an enterprise, in which he was joined by several merchants, among whom was Samuel Champlain, "the father of the French settlements in America." He and Pontgravé ascended the St. Lawrence as far as the Sault St. Louis; but, finding it impossible to pass that cataract they with some difficulty reached the height above it, making the



CHAMPLAIN ASCENDING THE ST. LAWRENCE.

best observations they could on the river and country. On returning to France, he found De Chaste dead; but he was flatteringly received by the king, and ever after exerted much influence in the colonial affairs of the crown.

An opulent gentleman, and especial favourite of Henry, named De Monts, now undertook to prosecute the enterprise commenced by De Chaste. His expedition was on a more extensive scale than any preceding one; and its success was proportionate to the wishes of the proprietor. The first voyage, however, was disastrous: although the company left on Nova Scotia were ultimately the means of founding the important colony of Acadia.

De Monts was prevented from accompanying the second expedition, which consisted of two vessels, and the command was intrusted to Champlain. He sailed from Honfleur on the 13th of April, 1608, and on the 3d of June reached Tadoussac. The port of this place was tolerably safe; but the shore consisted only of dreary rocks and sands, scantily clothed with larch and pine. Ascending the St. Lawrence, the company passed the isle of Orleans, and soon after reached a hill called, by the natives, Quebec. On this spot, Champlain laid the foundations (July 13, 1608) of the modern capital of British America. Here they passed the winter, and sowed some grain, for which they found the soil well adapted.

As soon as the season admitted, Champlain resumed his voyage up the river, between banks covered with noble forests. At the isle of St. Eloi, twenty-five leagues above Quebec, he met a number of Algonquin Indians, who were proceeding against the Iroquois. Champlain, with a zeal strangely contrasting with his former prudence, joined this party, and after a tedious journey, the allied forces came in sight of their enemy (June 29). The Iroquois were de-

feated, and Champlain, with his new allies, returned to Quebec. Not long after, he returned to France, in order to solicit more adventurers.

During his absence, important changes respecting his colony had been transpiring. De Monts's commission had been revoked, and with it the exclusive monopoly of the fur trade. This having formed a principal motive among the settlers, its repeal was regarded as exceedingly disastrous, if not fatal, to their future prospects. The energy of Champlain overcame this difficulty. An agreement was made with some traders at Rochelle, to give them

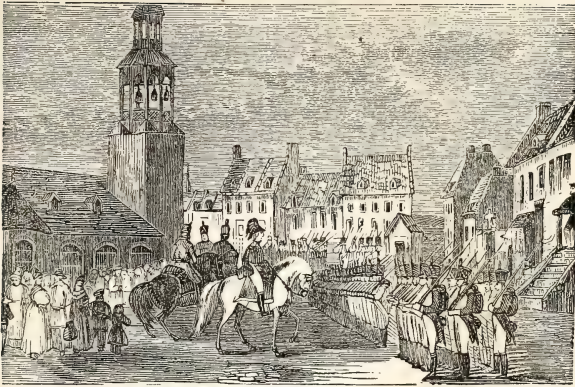


AN IROQUOIS INDIAN.

the use of his building at Quebec, as a *dépôt* for their goods; while they, by way of recompense, engaged to assist him in his plans of colonization. By this means, in 1610, Champlain was fitted out with a considerable reinforcement of men and supplies.

On his return to the St. Lawrence, he received an application from the Algonquins to assist them in a fresh dispute—they promising to join him with four hundred men at the mouth of the Iroquois river. He complied with the request, marched with his allies against the hostile tribe, and, after a severe battle, utterly defeated them. Champlain soon after sailed for Europe, taking with him a native Indian.

In 1611, Champlain again reached America, bringing with him the young Indian. On the 28th of May, he arrived at the place of rendezvous appointed for another warlike expedition; but, not finding the savages, he employed his time in choosing a spot for a new



PLACE D'ARMES, MONTREAL.

settlement, higher up the river than Quebec. After a careful survey, he fixed upon ground in the vicinity of an eminence, which he denominated Mont Royal; and the choice has been amply justified by the prosperity to which this place, now named Montreal, has attained. He cleared a considerable space, sowed some grain, and enclosed it by a wall of earth. A distressing accident soon afterwards occurred, by which Savignon, the Indian who had accompanied him to France, Louis, a European, and a native chief named Outetoncos, were tossed in a whirlpool, while descending the river, and both the latter drowned. On coming to the spot, Champlain could scarcely believe it possible that any person should have attempted to pass so formidable a rapid.

On the 13th of June, a party of friendly Indians appeared and evinced much pleasure at the sight of their countryman, who gave the most favourable report of the treatment he had received in France; the allies then unfolded the cause of their delay in meeting at the time appointed. A prisoner having escaped the previous year, had spread the report, that the French, having designed to espouse the cause of the Iroquois, were coming in great force to exterminate the Algonquin nation. The French leader bitterly complained of their having listened to such a rumour, which all his actions belied. A perfect reconciliation was then effected, and both

parties solemnly declared their determination of adhering to their alliance, and aiding, to the utmost of their power, the design of the French leader to penetrate into the interior.

Champlain received from his allies very extensive information respecting the continent, as far south as the Gulf of Mexico. They acquiesced in his proposal of returning with forty or fifty of his people to prosecute discoveries, and, if possible, to form settlements in the interior. For some reason not explained, the war with the Iroquois appears to have been dropped; but the Algonquins requested that a French youth should accompany them, and make observations upon their territory and tribe. They asked their visitor to use his influence in order to dissuade one of their bravest warriors, who had been three times made prisoner by the Iroquois, and as often escaped, to relinquish the purpose he had now formed of setting out with only nine companions, to attack the enemy, and avenge his former wrongs. Attempts were made to divert him from so rash a purpose; but, exhibiting his fingers partly cut off, and his whole body covered with wounds, he declared it impossible to live unless he obtained revenge.

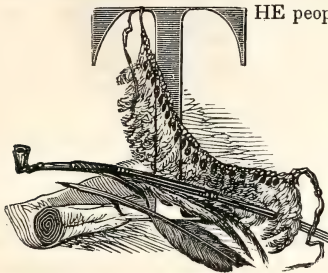
Champlain now returned to France, where he found the interests of the colony in a very unsettled state. De Monts resigned the whole business into his hands, who was fortunate enough to secure an influential patron in the Count de Soissons, who was appointed lieutenant-general of New France, the functions of which high office were delegated, by a formal agreement, to Champlain. Soon after, the count died; but his place was well supplied by the Prince of Condé. Champlain was confirmed in his former authority.



NEW FRANCE was again visited by Champlain. In the beginning of March, 1613, he sailed from Honfleur, and arrived at Quebec on the 7th of May. His aim was now different from that of former expeditions.

Among the objects of adventure in that age, a favourite one was a north-west passage to China, and every thing connected with the report of a sea beyond Canada inspired the greatest hopes. A Frenchman, named Nicholas de Vignau, who had spent a winter among the savages, reported that the Ottawa river issued from a lake connected with the North Sea; that he had visited its shores and beheld there the wreck of an English vessel. This news appeared so doubtful that the man was compelled to sign his declaration before two notaries, and with the assurance of being hung in

ase of being detected in an attempt to deceive. Champlain then recommenced his voyage, and, on the 21st of May, arrived at the Fall of St. Louis. Here, with but two canoes containing four Frenchmen and one native, he pushed forward, on an unknown river, boiling with eddies and cataracts, skirted by craggy rocks, whose forests stretched an unknown distance into the interior, and where, for every mile, they knew not but that an enemy was silently following them as they glided into some snare. At length, they reached the abode of Tessonat, a friendly chief, whose country was only eight days' sail from that of the Nipissings, where the supposed shipwreck occurred.



HE people received the French adventurer courteously, calling together, at his request, a solemn council. With reluctance, however, that body consented to aid his expedition; and, on being a second time assembled, the chiefs demanded on what grounds so momentous an enterprise was to be under-

taken. On hearing of De Vignau, they called on him to say if he had ever made such a journey and when, after long hesitation, he answered in the affirmative, they raised loud and fierce cries, declaring that he was speaking falsely, having never passed beyond their country, and that he should be tortured to death for having so grossly deceived his chief. Seeing his follower confused, Champlain took him aside, and adjured him to tell the truth. Recovering confidence, he persisted in his former declarations; and the commander, on returning to the council, referred to the interior sea, the shipwreck, and other confirmations of his subordinate's report. At this, they shouted louder than ever, and commenced a close interrogation of the alleged traveller. The latter finally confessed that he had been attempting to deceive, and thus Champlain found, to his great mortification, that during the whole summer he had been toiling for nothing. There was no alternative but to return down the Ottawa; in doing which he was joined by a considerable number of Indians who rendezvoused at the fall of St. Louis. After leaving two Frenchmen with them to obtain a knowledge of the country.



LAKE GEORGE.

Champlain sailed to Tadoussac, and hence to St. Malo, where he arrived August 26, 1614.

He was soon enabled to equip another expedition, with which he arrived at Tadoussac, May 25, 1615. From hence he sailed to Quebec, and thence to the place of rendezvous, at St. Louis Falls. He found his allies prepared to embark in an expedition against the Iroquois, and without hesitation furnished them with a plan for the campaign. After a tedious voyage, the united forces reached Lake Nepissing, and were received by the tribe inhabiting its shores with cordiality. Proceeding onward, they reached a large body of water, named, by the Indians, Attigouantan, which appeared to be three hundred leagues in length, by fifty in breadth. It was, probably Lake Huron.

After quitting this, they struck into the interior, and came to a smaller expanse of water, finely diversified by islands, which seems to be Lake George. On its banks was the Iroquois fort, which, in expectation of an attack, had been rendered particularly strong. A brisk fire from the European weapons soon drove the garrison into their inner works, where, however, they defended themselves with a courage as heroic as it was unexpected. The Indian allies soon became discouraged, and retired, leaving the brunt of the battle to

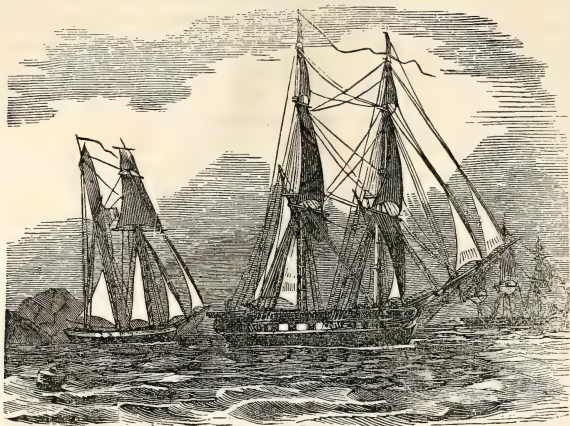


RICHELIEU.

oe sustained by Champlain and his few followers. He was twice wounded in the leg; and an expected reinforcement of five hundred warriors having failed to arrive, the assault was discontinued. The whole party soon after effected a precipitate retreat. In the following spring, Champlain again sailed for Europe, and arrived at Honfleur, September 10, 1616.

The scheme of colonization was now interrupted by the intestine tumults of the mother country. The Prince of Condé was disgraced, and finally obliged to sell his share in Canada to the Duke de Montmorency. Champlain was continued as lieutenant; but it was not until 1620, that he was enabled, in company with his family, to return to Canada. Two years after, the Duke de Ventadour took charge, as a viceroy, of the affairs of New France, and, for the purpose of converting the Indians, sent some Jesuits to Canada. At the same time, a number of Calvinists, under their leader the Sieur de Caen, were actively engaged in the fur trade; and the disputes between the two parties concerning religion greatly retarded the prosperity of the settlements.

With a view to obviate all cause of dissension, the Cardinal de Richelieu established the company of New France. It consisted of one hundred associates, engaged to send three hundred tradesmen to Canada, and supply their settlers with food, clothing, and implements for three years, and with land after that time. The priests were to have all expenses defrayed for fifteen years. The king



EXPEDITION OF SIR DAVID KIRKE

reserved to himself supremacy in matters of faith ; homage as sovereign of the country ; the nomination of all commanders and officers of the forts ; and the appointing of all officers of justice, when it should be necessary to establish courts of law. The company, and their successors for ever, received the fort and settlements of Quebec, all New France, including Florida, with the countries along the course of the great river of Canada, and all rivers emptying into it, or into the sea, on both the eastern and western coasts of the Continent, with all the harbours, islands, mines, and rights of fishery. Two ships of war were presented to the company by the king, the value of which was to be refunded if the company failed in sending at least fifteen hundred French inhabitants, of both sexes, to New France, during the first ten years.

This instrument was signed April, 1627, and created among the friends of colonial prosperity the most flattering expectations. The administration under a viceroy being omitted, Champlain was continued as governor of Canada. At first, the colony was reduced to great distress, particularly through the capture of the first vessels sent from France with stores. This was effected by some English ships under Sir David Kirke. That officer even appeared with

his squadron before Quebec, and had the famished condition of the garrison at that time been known, he could easily have compelled a surrender. Besides the dangers from a foreign source, the prosperity of the colony was retarded by the folly or corruption of the company's directors in France, so that even Champlain's powerful mind, so fertile in expedients on occasions of difficulty, was subjected to vexatious mortifications, by orders and restrictions from the old country, and unfortunate circumstances in the new.

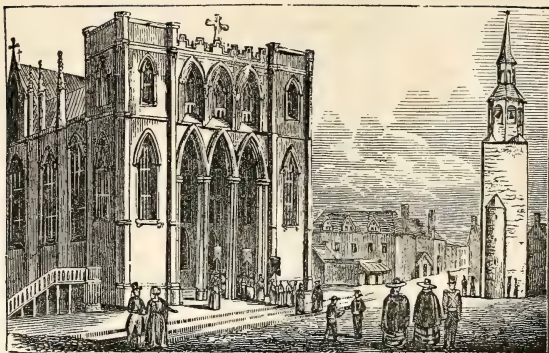
In the midst of these perplexities, while Champlain was reduced to the utmost extremity by the want of food, clothing, and implements, and exposed to repeated attacks from the Iroquois, Sir David Kirke, at the head of an English squadron, again appeared before Quebec. The deplorable situation of the colony, and the very honourable terms proposed by the assailants, induced Champlain to surrender the fortress, with all Canada, to the crown of England. Kirke's generosity to the colonists induced them to remain; and, in 1632, the treaty of St. Germain restored the whole territory to France. In the following year, Champlain arrived with a squadron and all necessary supplies. Measures were immediately adopted for maintaining harmony among the inhabitants, especially in religious matters, and affairs speedily assumed a more prosperous aspect. The efforts of the Jesuits to inculcate morality among the inhabitants, and their extraordinary perseverance in making discoveries and establishing missions—the regulation of their great college, founded in 1635, by Father Reni, Robault, and the gifts which they obtained, contributed in no little degree to this result.



IN 1635, Canada met with an irreparable loss in the death of Champlain. In establishing and supporting the colony, this energetic man had surmounted difficulties which few would have encountered. His comprehensive grasp of intellect and sound judgment enabled him to divine the future greatness of a region like Canada, and stimulated him to untiring perseverance in prosecuting the vast design of its settlement. His sole object during the greater part of his life was to found a colony, which he felt confident would eventually attain to extraordinary power and grandeur.

He was succeeded by M. de Montinagny, a well-meaning officer, but totally deficient in the experience, knowledge, and abilities of his predecessor. The colony, in consequence, began to decline.

About this time, the Jesuits were busy in establishing schools and



NEW CATHEDRAL, MONTREAL.

colleges throughout the province. In 1636, an institution for the instruction of the Indians was founded at Sillery, near Quebec. This was followed by the Convent of St. Ursula. The order of St. Sulpicius sent a mission to Canada, and a seminary was consecrated with great ceremony at Montreal. The Hotel Dieu was founded in 1644; the College of St. Sulpicius, in 1650; and the order of the Gray Sisters, in 1652. All the ancient religious edifices, however are surpassed by the recently erected Cathedral of Montreal.

The company of New France almost entirely neglected the terms of their charter; and the Iroquois, taking advantage of the consequent derangement of the colony, continued to harass the inhabitants with unabated ferocity. The actual extinction of the settlement at Montreal was prevented only by the arrival of M. d'Aillebout (1647) with a reinforcement of a hundred men. More than ten years after, the Marquis d'Argenson was appointed governor-general, and soon after, in company with the Abbé de Montigny, the apostolic vicar of the province, he landed at Quebec.

Still the condition of the colony was wretched. The company entirely abandoned it. The Iroquois, who had spread terrible destruction among their old enemies, the Algonquins and Hurons, seemed also determined to exterminate the French. Several hundreds of their warriors kept Quebec in a state of almost actual siege, while another band massacred a great number of the settlers at Montreal.

In this miserable condition, the energy of one man probably saved the colony. This was the Baron d'Avangour. He was stern and



INDIAN WARRIOR.

rigid in the performance of duty ; but these qualities are necessary in such an extremity. He became governor in 1661, and commenced his administration by transmitting to the king an accurate account of the beauty and importance of the country, and its defenceless condition. So influential was this statement to the king, that he immediately ordered four hundred troops, with the necessary supplies, to Canada, accompanied with a special commission. Their arrival infused new spirit among the colonists, enabling them, for the first time, to cultivate their lands with security.

The 5th of February, 1663, is memorable for the occurrence of a

fearful earthquake, which was felt at intervals with more or less intensity for six months, and extended throughout the province.

From this time until 1670, the affairs of the colony continued to improve, although occasionally disturbed by inroads from the Indians. In that year, the Church of Quebec was constituted a bishopric, and important measures were adopted for the better government of the country, and the maintenance of peace with the savages. But the enthusiastic efforts of the clerical orders for the conversion of the Indians, were suddenly interrupted by a fearful calamity, previously unknown in the western world. The small-pox made its appearance among the tribes north of the St. Lawrence, and, together with the use of ardent spirits, destroyed a greater number of the aborigines of North America than war or all the diseases to which they were previously subjected.

In 1672, Fort Frontenac was built on the spot where Kingston now stands ; and, not long after, the illustrious man whose name it bears, was appointed governor of Canada. During his administration, and that of his predecessor, M. de Courcelles, the French explored the greater part of Canada, and the savages were taught to



CITADEL OF KINGSTON FROM THE ST. LAWRENCE.

regard the Europeans with some degree of awe. M. Perrot, an indefatigable traveller, visited all the nations in the vicinity of the Great Lakes. The Falls of St. Mary were surrendered to the French sovereign, and a cross erected there, on which were placed the national arms.

Toward the close of Frontenac's administration, fresh difficulties occurred with the Iroquois, chiefly through the influence of the English traders, who were anxious to secure the fur trade to themselves. M. de la Barre succeeded Frontenac, in 1682, at which time the Iroquois had assumed such a tone of defiance, and made such formidable preparations, that a general war with the Indians seemed inevitable. The new governor found himself in a critical situation, more especially as the West India Company, in whose hands Canada had been placed, cared little for their trust, so long as they could monopolize the fur trade. The whole population numbered but nine thousand inhabitants. To prevent the utter extermination of these, some decisive measure was necessary; and, accordingly, De la Barre determined on invading the hostile Indians themselves. This he did with one thousand troops; but the expedition resulted in nothing more than an unsatisfactory negotiation. The marquis was soon afterwards succeeded by M. de Nouville.

This officer appears to have entered upon the duties of his station with a fixed determination to destroy the Iroquois as a nation. The means he took to accomplish this object were as active as they were unscrupulous. Having brought with him a considerable reinforce-



FEMALE IROQUOIS.

ment, he proceeded with two thousand troops to Cataraqui, where, through the influence of the Jesuits, he induced many of the hostile chiefs to meet him at Fort Frontenac. These were immediately seized, loaded with irons, and sent to France to be employed in the galleys. After this act, the governor began the erection of a fort at Niagara, notwithstanding his being notified of a treaty having been concluded between France and England, and in direct opposition to the remonstrance of the governor of New York.

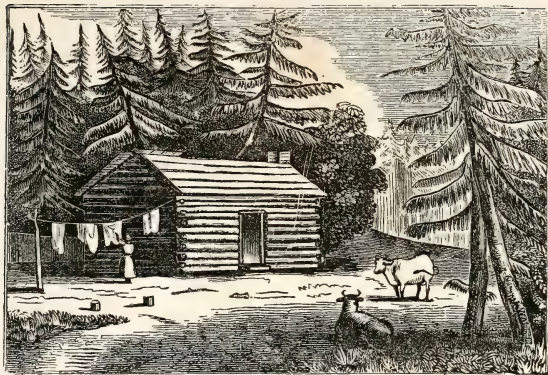
These proceedings aroused the whole nation of Iroquois to arms. Fort Frontenac was attacked by their warriors, and the surrounding plantations desolated; and a French bark, laden with provisions and stores, was captured on Lake Ontario. These successful efforts were attended by a policy, singularly contrasting with the usual want of system characteristic of savage warfare. Deputies were sent to treat with De Nouville; but they were attended by five hundred warriors; while, in case of the rejection of their terms, no less than twelve hundred held themselves in readiness, near Montreal, to fall upon the settlements, set fire to the buildings and corn-fields, and scalp the inhabitants. Under these circumstances, the lofty tone of the Indian orator, in stating the condition of his nation, formed no obstacle to the speedy acceptance of the proffered peace, and of the demand that the chiefs then in slavery should be sent for without delay.

Thus, to all appearances, the difficulties under which the colony had long laboured were soon to be adjusted; an unforeseen event dissipated these hopes, and rekindled the flames of war. Le Rat, the principal chieftain of the Hurons, perceived the danger to which his tribe would be exposed, should their old enemy conclude a peace



LE RAT.

with the French ; and with a refinement of treachery which would not disgrace the most artful politician of Europe, he formed a scheme to prevent it. Learning that a party of the Iroquois deputies were to land at the cascades of the St. Lawrence, on their way to Montreal ; he and a party of his countrymen lay in ambush and killed or captured them as they successively disembarked. He then informed the prisoners that this crime had been committed at the instigation of the governor, and that they were to be conveyed to Montreal and hung. On being informed of the treaty, he feigned the greatest astonishment, and loudly exclaimed against the Frenchman's treachery, which had made him its tool. He then sent them home, retaining one to supply the place of a warrior whom he had lost. The governor was entirely ignorant of this transaction, and still waited for the deputies of his new allies. In this frame of mind, he was visited by Le Rat, and through the artful representations of that warrior, induced to shoot the Iroquois who had been substituted for the slain Huron. Le Rat took care that an old Iroquois slave in his possession should witness this execution, although the causes of it

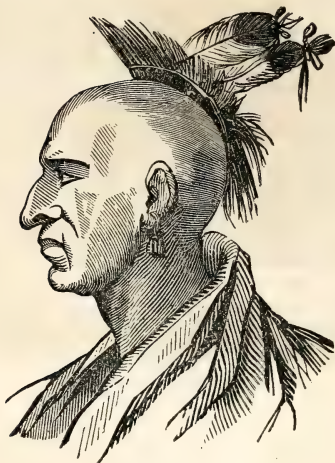


CANADIAN LOG HUT

were carefully concealed; and he was then sent immediately to his own tribe to report that even this solitary Iroquois, notwithstanding all the remonstrances of Le Rat, could not be saved from the governor's fury.

It is easy to conceive the indignation of the Iroquois when they heard of the massacre at the Cascades; but the last stroke of Le Rat's policy roused every element of war and destruction. The whole tribe rushed to arms; and descending on the island of Montreal, laid it waste by fire and sword, carrying off two hundred prisoners. The Fort at Cataraqui, like that at Niagara, was blown up and abandoned.

The colony was now in a perilous condition; its very existence was threatened; and some officer possessing energy of character and address in dealing with the savages, was now imperatively demanded. These qualities were united in the Count de Frontenac, who, during his former administration, had made himself both beloved and feared by the surrounding tribes. The few errors which led to his recall, experience, it was hoped, would enable him to avoid. He took out with him the captive chiefs which his predecessor had so unjustly seized, behaving towards them in so fascinating a manner as completely to gain their favour. Oureouhare, the principal one, remained ever after most strongly attached to him



OUIROUHARE.

Frontenac arrived in 1689, and endeavoured to open a negotiation with the Iroquois, in which he was seconded by the captive chiefs. The Iroquois, however, refused to treat. They complained of the former governor's treachery, and, although professing respect for the count, they argued that they were unable to perceive how the governorship could ever be given into different hands. A second attempt on the part of Frontenac was attended with like success. Two circumstances emboldened the Iroquois to assume this high tone. One was, the war between France and England, consequent to the former power espousing the cause of James II., and which enabled the Five Nations to depend on the cordial co-operation of both the English and Dutch. The other, the treaty lately concluded with the Ottawas, by which that tribe had severed themselves from the French.

Under these perplexing circumstances, Frontenac formed the bold resolution to invade the English colonies, and, by striking a sudden blow, to teach the savages that they were dealing with an enemy who could command their respect. Accordingly, he fitted out three

expeditions (1690) destined to act against Maine, New York, and New Hampshire. Casco and Salmon Falls were surprised and burnt; and, soon after, the third party entered Schenectady at dead of night, completely surprised it, burnt the dwellings, and massacred many of the inhabitants.

This daring measure roused the English colonists, and a project was formed for the complete reduction of Canada. An expedition, under Sir William Phipps, sailed from Boston against Quebec; and a second proceeded by land towards Montreal. After capturing Acadia and Newfoundland, Phipps appeared before Quebec, and summoned it to surrender. Although the garrison had been almost completely surprised, a haughty refusal was returned; and after some vain efforts both by sea and land, the expedition returned in disgrace. A like result attended the attack on Montreal. A similar invasion the next year by the English and Mohawks, under Major Schuyler, was also unsuccessful.

These attempts were followed by inconsiderable efforts of both parties, until the year 1696, when Frontenac resolved on an invasion of the English territory with his whole force. Crossing Lake Ontario and up the Oswego, he entered the country of the Onondagas, laid it waste, together with that of the Cayugas, and then returned, with but little interruption, to Montreal. The peace of Ryswick (1679) put an end to these desultory invasions and soon after negotiations were commenced with the Iroquois. Frontenac died in 1698, but a treaty was concluded by his successor, Callieres, in 1700, and the prisoners of both parties released.

Queen Anne's war, in 1702, renewed the dangers and exertions of the American colonies. The English, intoxicated by their successes in Europe, commenced a systematic plan for the complete reduction of Canada. The Iroquois, however, refused to join them, wisely maintaining a strict neutrality. Their efforts were signally unsuccessful, and the French power in the New World was established on a firmer base than ever. A harassing war with the Fox Indians interrupted the intercourse with Louisiana, but these savages were at length totally defeated.

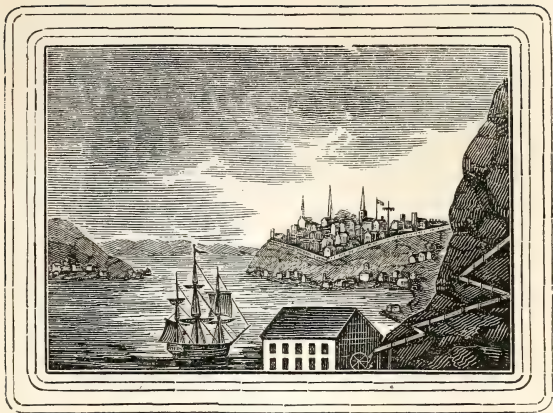
From the treaty of Utrecht (1713) until the commencement of the Seven Years' War, Canada continued to advance in prosperity, and finally secured the friendship and co-operation of nearly all the neighbouring Indians. Various forts were erected at different places, and circumstances were already favouring the grand scheme

of uniting Canada and Louisiana, which, at a subsequent period was fully accomplished, and which eventuated in the loss of Canada and its neighbouring provinces.

The events which immediately preceded the conquest of Canada by the united forces of Great Britain and her colonies, will be fully narrated in a subsequent chapter, in connection with the history of those British colonies which eventually formed the republic of the United States.



DANCE OF CANADIAN HABITANS

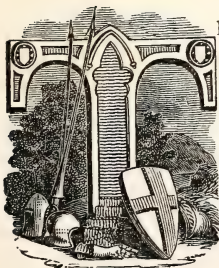


BAY OF QUEBEC.

CHAPTER X.

MINOR PROVINCES OF BRITISH AMERICA.

I. NOVA SCOTIA.



THE British possessions in America, exclusive of Canada, may be divided into two portions. One embraces the maritime provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the islands in their vicinity. These are all of political and financial importance, commensurate with their size and natural advantages. The second portion includes the vast region lying north of Canada, a part of the continent little known, inhabited by numerous tribes of Indians, and hitherto valuable only for its furs. It is divided by Hudson's Bay into Labrador and New Britain.

These shores were the first towards which voyages of discovery



INDIAN VILLAGE ON THE ST. LAWRENCE.

in North America were directed. The Cabots, Cortereal, and Verazzano, pursued their course, exclusively, either along them or the neighbouring part of the United States. The unsuccessful attempts of Mr. Hore and Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in 1536 and 1578, will be noticed in a subsequent chapter.

Their want of success damped for a while the spirit of enterprise among the English. Other nations, however, had long looked toward the northern and middle shores of America with greedy eyes. The French, under Verazzano, as we have already seen, had sailed along the coast, now forming the boundary of the United States, from Florida to New England; and the Spanish were only prevented from following the same track, by their inordinate grasping after wealth, which invariably precluded any permanent friendly intercourse with the natives. France resumed her efforts before the close of the sixteenth century. In 1603, a gentleman, named De Monts, obtained from Henry IV. privilege to settle and govern the country near Newfoundland, with the monopoly of the fur trade. He sailed with four vessels, and on the 16th of May, 1604, reached Nova Scotia. Here he confiscated the vessel and effects of a French captain, whom he found engaged in trade. After entering the Bay of Fundy and making a fruitless attempt to penetrate through it into the St. Law



SETTLEMENT OF PORT ROYAL.

rence, he fixed on an island near the mouth of the St. Croix, as a place of settlement. The crew cultivated a piece of ground, and erected a fort with neat apartments and a chapel. But winter set in with a severity for which they were unprepared. Their fuel was soon exhausted. They were compelled to drink snow-water, and subsist entirely on salted provisions, which at length brought on the scurvy in its most aggravated form. Their sufferings during the winter were appalling.

At the end of this season, De Monts sailed southward in search of a milder climate. He reached Cape Cod, but the numerous tribes of hostile Indians in this neighbourhood were too strong for his small party. He returned to St. Croix, and, having obtained a sea sonable reinforcement, removed to a spot on the Bay of Fundy which, when formerly passed, had appeared very desirable. This he named Port Royal. The whole country, including New Brunswick, was styled Acadia. De Monts then repaired to France for further supplies; but his people having raised grain and vegetables and procured abundance of venison, passed two winters very agreeably. But these flattering prospects were blasted by an act of government, depriving De Monts of all his privileges. Soon after Captain Argall, being on a voyage in that region, invaded the pro-

vince without the least provocation, attacked a small settlement named La Have, and carried the inhabitants to Virginia. He attempted to excuse this act by alleging that they were pirates; but when the authorities of Jamestown would have hung them, he confessed the real nature of his act. So far from discountenancing this piece of injustice, the British adopted it as a ground to claim the whole of Acadia.



THESE efforts of England's great rival roused the spirit of the British. In 1621, Sir William Alexander received a grant of the territory from the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence, together with the usual extravagant and ridiculous powers. He sent out an expedition in 1622. In consequence of various delays, the navigators could not, in the first year, pass beyond Newfoundland, where they were obliged to winter. In the following spring, they coasted along the ceded country, but found all its principal points, including Port Royal, re-occupied by French settlers. They, therefore, returned to England and spread the most flattering reports of the value and beauty of Acadia. This result so far pleased the proprietor, that, when war broke out with France, he sent out a squadron (1627) under his eldest son, by which the French settlements were speedily reduced. The subsequent conquest of Canada, in 1629, gave Great Britain full possession of this part of the continent. It was restored to France by the treaty of St. Germain, 1632.

The court of Paris having regained possession of the territory, divided it (1634) among three individuals. A young man, named La Tour, received the middle districts; one Denys the northern; and Razillai the southern. The latter was succeeded by Daubré de Charnisé, between whom and La Tour there arose an inveterate feud. The contest was waged with relentless animosity. La Tour received some assistance from Boston, but more from his wife, who, being attacked during her husband's absence, beat off the assailants with great loss. She was afterwards surprised by Charnisé, the fort taken, and the garrison hanged. Madame de la Tour was herself so ill-treated, that she died with vexation.

Soon after this perfidious transaction, Charnisé died, and La Tour returned to France. Here he sought to heal the feud by marrying the widow of his rival; but when affairs appeared in an amicable train, Le Borgne, an assumed creditor of Charnisé, appeared, cl

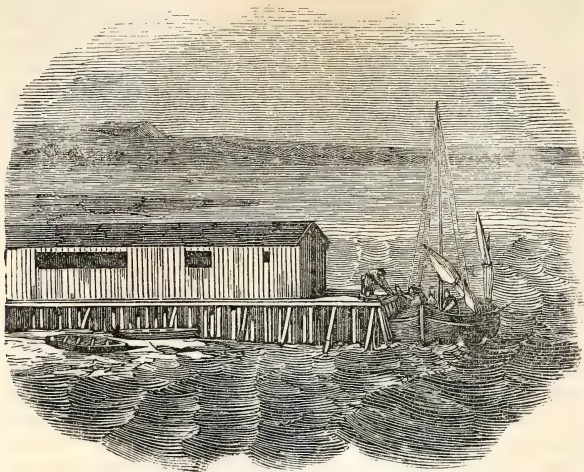
ing his possessions, and accusing La Tour of heresy. He thus managed to strip the latter of his rights, and then attacking Denys, he took him prisoner, destroyed La Have, took possession of Port Royal, and prepared to attack La Tour in St. John. But a new rival was at hand, far more powerful than either or both of the French proprietors.



OLIVER CROMWELL, having seized the reins of power in England, declared war against France, and waged it vigorously, with the special view of extending his foreign possessions. In 1654, he despatched an expedition against Nova Scotia, under the command of Major Sedgewick. There was not sufficient force, even if it had been united, to resist that officer; so that, after defeating La Tour, he advanced against Port Royal, where La Borgne by no means made that resistance which had been expected from his previous resolution. He soon yielded the place, and his son, endeavouring to fortify himself at La Have, was made prisoner.

La Tour, who always accommodated himself to circumstances, seeing the country in possession of the English, hastened to make his submission, and urged his claim, founded on former transactions between his father and Lord Stirling. He was favourably listened to; and in conjunction with Temple, afterwards Sir Thomas, and William Crowne, persons probably of great interest with the Protector, obtained a grant of the greater part of the country. The former bought up the share of La Tour, spent £16,000 on fortifications, and opened a very advantageous trade and fishery. But all his prospects were blasted by the treaty of Breda, concluded by Charles II. in 1667, by virtue of which Nova Scotia was again made over to France. Temple endeavoured to save something by insisting on a distinction between the limits of Nova Scotia and Acadia; but not being supported by his government, he was obliged to deliver up all.

The French thus resumed full possession of the colony, which, in fact, they had almost exclusively occupied, though in a slight and careless manner; for, from the absence of gold and silver, and even of any rich marketable produce, it was viewed as a barren and unpromising settlement. A few straggling immigrants stationed themselves from time to time along the coast; and yet, according to an



FISHING STATION ON THE COAST OF NOVA SCOTIA

enumeration made about 1680, the whole population did not exceed nine hundred. Even the fishery, the only productive branch, was carried on by the English. A few forts were scattered at wide intervals; but so weak and small, that two of them were taken and plundered by a single piratical vessel of no great force.

In this situation, after the breaking out of the war consequent upon the Revolution of 1688, Acadia appeared an easy conquest. The achievement was assigned to Massachusetts, the resources of which were by no means ample; but the commander, Sir William Phipps, contrived to equip an expedition of seven hundred men

On the 20th of May, 1690, he appeared before Port Royal. It soon surrendered on advantageous terms, which Phipps, discovering that the place was weaker than he had supposed, did not faithfully observe. He merely dismantled the fortress, and left the country a prey to pirates, by whom it was unmercifully ravaged. The Chevalier Villabon, therefore, who arrived soon after from France, reconquered it, by simply pulling down the English and hoisting the French flag. The neighbouring Indians, always partial to his coun-



MARLBOROUGH.

trymen, were easily induced to join them against the enemy, and aided in capturing the strong frontier fortress of Pemaquid, where these savage warriors were guilty of some of their usual acts of cruelty. The Bostonians, thus roused, sent a body of five hundred men under Colonel Church, who soon regained the country, with the exception of one fort on the St. John. He then called on the Acadians to join him against the Indians, their former allies, and on their refusal, plundered and burned many of their habitations. The situation of these colonists, while passing continually from hand to hand, was truly lamentable. They were naturally and strongly attached to France, their native country; yet the English, after the most slight and partial conquest, claimed of them all the duties of British subjects, and, on failure, inflicted the wonted penalties of rebellion. No attempts were made to wrest the province out of the hands of Britain till the treaty of Ryswick, in 1696, when William, having secured his most essential objects, followed the usual policy of allowing the French to resume this distant and little valued possession.

This peace was speedily succeeded, in 1702, by the memorable war of the Spanish Succession under Queen Anne. That contest, distinguished in Europe by the victories of Marlborough, and other splendid events, was also marked by an increased importance attached to colonial acquisitions; while the settlers in North America seemed to feel, even more deeply than their countrymen at home, the animosity which divided the two nations. The ignorant and extra

gant grants made by each party, were found, as discovery extended, more and more to clash with each other, and afforded constant pretexts for hostility. The reduction of Nova Scotia was again left to Massachusetts; and she was encouraged to undertake it by the assurance, that what should be gained by arms would not again be sacrificed by treaty. The first expedition, which consisted of five hundred and fifty men, was despatched in 1704, under Colonel Church, who found little resistance while committing ravages which did honour neither to himself nor his country. Three years afterwards, a force of a thousand soldiers was sent to complete the conquest of the country; but Subercase, the French commandant at Port Royal, conducted the defence of that place with such spirit and ability, that the assailants were twice obliged to raise the siege with considerable loss.

The determination of the New Englanders, however, could not be shaken. After two years spent in preparation, they assembled a much larger force, consisting of five regiments, four of them levied in the colony. It was placed under the command of General Nicholson, who arrived at Port Royal, on the 24th of September, 1710, when Subercase, with a garrison of only two hundred and sixty, declining to attempt a vain resistance, obtained an honourable capitulation. The troops marched out with the honours of war, and were conveyed to France. The deed of surrender, signed on the 2d of October, forms the era when, after so many vicissitudes, Nova Scotia was permanently annexed to the British crown.

The intelligence of this disaster was received at Paris with a regret not before felt on similar occasions; it being clearly foreseen, that if the country could not be reconquered by force of arms, there was no hope of regaining it by treaty. Yet the urgent state of affairs in Europe rendered it impossible to detach from that quarter any considerable expedition; and the governor of Canada was deterred from hostile operations by a threatened invasion of his own territory. Overtures were made to the merchants of Rochelle to equip an armament, which would be rewarded by large and profitable establishments on the coast; but they rightly judged that the expense of such an enterprise would be heavy, and the profit doubtful. The English, however, were considerably harassed by risings among the native French and Indians, down to the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. Although that treaty did not fulfil all that was expected, it secured to Britain the full sovereignty of Nova Scotia, with the ex-

ception of Cape Breton and the other islands in the gulf of St. Lawrence.



GENERAL NICHOLSON, who had conquered the country, was, in 1714, appointed governor, and five years afterwards was succeeded by Colonel Phillips. The name of the capital was changed from Port Royal to Annapolis. But though the right of Britain to Nova Scotia was now fully acknowledged, she found it a possession not a little troublesome. Attempts were made to attract settlers both from England and the American colonies; but, owing to the rigour of the climate and the hostility of the two races by which it was peopled, only a few could be induced to remain in the country.

The Indians were beyond measure astonished on being informed that they were subjects of the King of Great Britain, transferred to him by a treaty to which they were not parties. On their inquiring whether such an arrangement had really been made, the French commanders informed them that they had never been mentioned in the treaty, and consequently were considered an independent people, while the British maintained that they were, as a matter of course, made over along with the territory. The Indians set at naught this last conclusion, and carried on a long and desperate war, in which their rapid movements, and skill in the arts of surprise, enabled them to gain many advantages. In 1720, they plundered a large establishment at Canseau, carrying off fish and merchandise to the value of £20,000; and in 1723, they captured at the same place seventeen sail of vessels, with numerous prisoners. The British inhabitants of Nova Scotia were obliged to solicit the aid of Massachusetts, which, in 1728, sent a body of troops against the chief Indian fort on the Kennebeck. It was stormed, the warriors pursued with great slaughter, and Rallé, their Catholic missionary, put to death, it is alleged, with circumstances of great cruelty. The savages were thus for some time overawed, though they eagerly watched an opportunity of renewing hostilities.

After an unusually long peace, the habitual enmity of the two nations broke out in a fresh war, declared by France, in March, 1744. Quesnel, governor of Cape Breton, immediately fitted out expeditions which took Canseau, and twice laid siege to Annapolis, but without success. These movements were condemned by the

court as premature, and tending to endanger the safety of Louisbourg, which was then ill prepared for defence. That city, well situated for fishing, though in a barren country, had been fortified by the French at an expense of £1,200,000, with a view to make it the bulwark of their possessions in North America. It was surrounded by a stone wall, two miles and a half in circuit, and by a ditch eighty feet wide. When, therefore, Shirley, governor of New England, proposed to the council the expediency of reducing it, the plan was at first rejected as visionary; though, on reconsideration, it was carried by a single vote. Extraordinary zeal, corresponding to the magnitude of the enterprise, was employed in the preparation; and yet the force destined against this great fortress, garrisoned by regular troops, consisted entirely of militia and volunteers, hastily levied and led on by Colonel William Pepperel, a gentleman extensively engaged in commerce. Massachusetts furnished three thousand two hundred men, Connecticut five hundred, and New Hampshire three hundred. They were animated with a species of religious enthusiasm, as entering on an anti-papal war. Mr. Whitefield, a celebrated Methodist preacher, furnished a motto, and a chaplain carried on his shoulder a hatchet to demolish the images. The army embarked in a number of small vessels, and early in April, 1745, arrived at Canseau. Here they were detained three weeks; but the French were so little on their guard, that they learned nothing of the presence of an enemy even when in their close vicinity. Application had been made to Commodore Warren, then on the West India station, for the assistance of the fleet; but to Shirley's great disappointment, he did not consider himself authorized to take such a step. This, however, was concealed from the troops; and on their arrival at Canseau, they were gratified to find the commodore, who, in consequence of subsequent instructions, had come to join them. On the 30th of April, the English came in view of Louisbourg, and, being quite unexpected, easily effected a landing; they even took a battery, and turned the guns against the city. they had, nevertheless, to sustain during a fortnight the laborious task of drawing cannon through a morass, where they were up to the knees in mud, and exposed to the enemy's fire. It was the 28th of May before the batteries could be completed, and active operations commenced; and such was the strength of the place, that the besiegers were repulsed in five successive attacks, in the last of which, they lost a hundred and eighty-nine men. But the works



SURRENDER OF LOUISBOURG

were now considerably damaged, and Warren having captured the *Vigilant*, a line-of-battle ship, containing five hundred and sixty men and supplies, Duchambon, the governor, lost courage, and capitulated on the 18th of June. On viewing the strength of the fortress, the victors were perfectly astonished at their success; and the French commander excused himself on account of the mutinous disposition of his garrison. The achievement was highly creditable to a body of merchants and husbandmen, destitute of either skill or experience in military affairs. The reduction of the island of St. John, now Prince Edward, soon followed, and by hoisting the French flag from the captured ports, the colonists decoyed into them a South Sea vessel, and two East India ships, the cargoes of which were valued at £600,000.



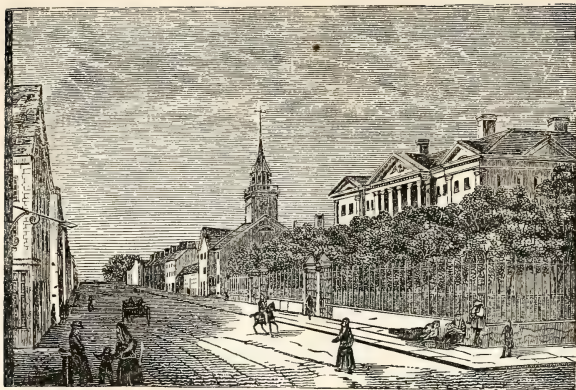
LOUIS XV.

Extraordinary chagrin was felt by the court of Louis XV. at a disaster for which they must have been little prepared. To retrieve it, an expedition was fitted out on so great a scale as to render the American seas, for the first time, the main theatre of war. It consisted of seventy ships, including eleven of the line, having on board upwards of three thousand disciplined troops. Being placed under the Duke d'Anville, an officer of great military reputation, it was intended first to reduce Louisbourg, then Annapolis, next Boston, and afterwards to range along the whole coast of North America, and finally to visit the West Indies. Early in the summer of 1746, the armament sailed from Brest, and passed, unnoticed, a British squadron, placed to observe its motions. Admiral Lestocq left Portsmouth in pursuit, but was repeatedly driven back by contrary winds, and hence the colonies were left to depend on their own resources. Here, however, the good fortune of the French commander terminated. He had a most tedious and tempestuous passage, being ninety days in reaching Chebucto; and by that time four ships of the line were so shattered as to be obliged to return to Europe, while three, sent under Admiral Conflans, by the West Indies, had touched at the point of rendezvous, but not finding the fleet, had also set sail homewards. D'Anville, overpowered, it should seem, by distress and disappointment, died suddenly; and Destournelle, the vice-admiral, in a few days became delirious, and ran himself through the body. In these calamitous circumstances, it was out of the question to attempt Louisbourg; but De la Jonquière, governor of Canada, having assumed the command, determined to proceed against Annapolis. In rounding Cape Sable, however, he had to sustain a fresh tempest, which so dispersed and injured the remaining ships of the fleet, that they instantly steered for Europe. Thus this mighty armament, which was expected to effect the conquest of all North America, was completely baffled, without meeting an enemy. The colonists regarded it as a special interposition of Providence, and celebrated the event by a general thanksgiving.

The French, however, were indefatigable. De la Jonquière was immediately sent out with thirty-eight sail; but having on his way encountered Admirals Anson and Warren, he was completely defeated, losing a ship of the line, and six richly laden East Indiamen which he had under convoy. The settlers then could not allow themselves to doubt, that in the treaty now negotiating, Cape Breton and Louisbourg, so important for the safety as well as compactness of their territory, would be secured to them. But the British ministry, with a view to preserve entire the possessions of their ally, the empress queen, and to maintain the balance of power in Europe, agreed to restore these conquests. However sound might be this policy in itself, its result could not fail to prove very mortifying to the American provincials, who had made the acquisition by so brilliant an exertion of courage and enterprise.

Britain now began to pay more attention to Nova Scotia. Hitherto it had been quite a French country, peopled and cultivated throughout by that hostile nation. It was suggested, that of the large number of soldiers and sailors discharged in consequence of the peace, a part might with great advantage be located as agriculturists, and thereby provide the colony with an English population. This project was embraced with ardour by the Earl of Halifax, then president of the Board of Trade and Plantations. Fifty acres were allowed to every private, with ten additional for each member of his family. A higher allowance was granted to officers, in proportion to their rank, till it amounted to six hundred for all above that of captain. By this encouragement, three thousand seven hundred and sixty adventurers, with their families, were induced to embark in May, 1749. They were landed, not at Annapolis, but at Chebucto, named henceforth Halifax, after the patron of the expedition.

The only inhabitants visible were small bands of savages, who glanced on them with a jealous and hostile eye, and then fled into the interior. The Honourable Edward Cornwallis, who had been appointed governor, nevertheless, inspired the settlers with a spirit of activity and emulation; planks and other materials were procured from New England; and, before winter, a neat wooden town, with spacious and regular streets, had been reared. The enforced idleness of that season was not a little dangerous to many of the immigrants. However, a strict police was established; the government was lodged in a council of six, who, uniting the executive with legislative and judicial functions, formed a somewhat arbitrary body; but



HALIFAX.

there were scarcely materials as yet for any other. Parliament continued to support the colony by annual grants, which, in 1755, had amounted to the enormous sum of £415,584.

Although the settlers seemed thus firmly established, they soon found themselves in an uneasy and difficult position. The Indians made at first some friendly overtures; but the influence of their old allies is said to have soon determined them to resume a system of the most active hostility. The English, notwithstanding their military habits, were ill-prepared to meet the desultory warfare of enemies who, stealing through the depth of swamps and thickets by paths which none but themselves could tread, appeared, struck the blow, and vanished. They even made attacks upon Halifax; and the colonists could not remove from that place singly or in small parties, for extending or improving their settlement, without imminent peril. When made captive, their fate was dreadful—scalping, torture, and death; or, if spared, they were dragged by long marches through trackless forests, suffering intolerable hardships. Many were carried to Louisbourg, where they were purchased as an article of merchandise. The French professed themselves actuated solely by a wish to save them from the dreadful fate that otherwise awaited them; yet these tender feelings, it was observed, never prevented them from extorting most exorbitant ransoms. There is great rea-

son to believe, that no means were employed to conciliate this unfortunate and injured race. It was determined to treat them, not as regular enemies, but as traitors and rebels; and that they might be rivalled in barbarity, a price was put upon Indian scalps.

Another circumstance which placed the colony in an uneasy situation, was the boundary contests with France. The history of this affair, however, which brought on the bloody conflicts of the Seven Years' War, will come under our notice in a subsequent chapter.



DOMICILIATED INDIANS.

II. NEW BRUNSWICK.



NEW BRUNSWICK did not exist as a separate colony, until 1783. Previous to this, the French had claimed it under the title of New France, as part of Acadia, and the English, in their turn, as part of Nova Scotia. When the latter province was ceded to the British government, France still claimed New Brunswick as part of Canada; but the peace of 1763 settled these conflicting claims, by giving the whole province to England. Still, it was left unoccupied except by a few Acadians, who had sought refuge among its forests from the relentless persecution to which they were exposed. In 1762, some families from



SIR GUY CARLETON

New England settled at Mangerville, about fifty miles up the St. John. In twenty years, their numbers had increased to eight hundred. At the close of the Revolutionary War, several thousand disbanded British troops were placed at Frederickton. But having been accustomed to the comforts of civilized life, these new colonists suffered great hardships, and a long season of privation, before they could place their families in comfortable situations.

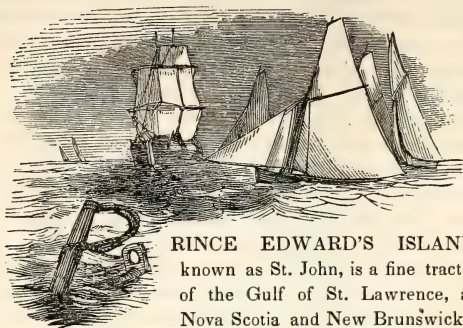
In 1785, Sir Guy Carleton was appointed governor, and made vigorous exertions for the improvement of the country, which gra-

lually, though slowly, advanced. On his return to England, (1803,) until 1817, the government was administered by presidents. In 1809, the duty on Baltic timber was advanced to nearly £3, while that of the colonies remained free. This laid the foundation of the present flourishing condition of New Brunswick. The country has continued to increase gradually in prosperity, under a succession of different rulers down to the present time.

In connection with Canada, New Brunswick shared in the long dispute between Great Britain and the United States, concerning the north-eastern boundary. The terms of the treaty of 1783, by leaving the exact line uncertain, had given rise to controversy, which, becoming more angry as it advanced, at length threatened an open rupture between the claimants. The territory subject to this ambiguity, formed, in 1783, a tract of wild forest, scarcely ever trodden by a European. But, as settlements increased, and with them cultivation of soil, the fine timber became an object to both parties. In 1829, an agreement was made to refer the question to the King of Holland. He returned an answer in 1831, declaring the impossibility of defining a boundary according to the terms of the treaty, but recommending a line extending along the St. Croix, the St. John, and thence to the head of the Connecticut. This the United States Senate rejected, proposing a new arbitrary line. While the question remained thus undecided, trespassers from each side entered the territory to cut timber. Expeditions were sent against them, who, in their turn, took possession of the ground. Matters grew worse every day, and a border war seemed inevitable, when an agreement was made between Mr. Fox, the British ambassador, and Mr. Forsyth, the American secretary of state, to the effect that the government of Maine should voluntarily withdraw its military force, and any further arrangements against trespassers be made by the two powers jointly. A convention to this effect was signed by the two governors, March 23 and 25, 1839. The subsequent condition of affairs, up to the conclusion of the "Ashburton Treaty," are reserved for a subsequent chapter.



III. PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.



PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND, formerly known as St. John, is a fine tract, lying south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and opposite Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Northumberland Strait separates it from these provinces. Its greatest length is about a hundred and thirty-five miles, the breadth varying from a single mile to thirty-four. The whole island is deeply indented by bays and inlets, so that scarcely one spot can be found removed more than seven or eight miles from tide-water. It is supposed, by Robertson and others, to be the land reached by Cabot in 1497, and subsequently visited by Verazzano. This is, however, very doubtful. The first definite notice given of it is by Champlain, who, naming it St. John, accurately describes its situation and extent and notices its harbours.

The cession of Acadia to Great Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht was an event favourable to the neighbouring islands. St. John received a number of French settlers; who, by their industry, soon gave a flourishing appearance to the island. It was captured by the New England forces, in 1745, but restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

After the second reduction of Louisbourg in 1758, that of St. John followed, and it became permanently attached to the British crown. The number of inhabitants, at that time, is variously rated at ten thousand, six thousand, and four thousand one hundred; the last probably nearest the truth. They had brought a very considerable portion of land under cultivation; had large stocks of horned cattle; and some of them could send twelve hundred bushels of wheat to the market of Quebec. They were now doomed, how

ever, to the same relentless proscription as their brethren in Nova Scotia; and the pretext was, that a number of English scalps were found in the French governor's house. There was, no doubt, a just ground of suspicion; though the British might have recollected that they themselves had offered premiums for these trophies. They were unquestionably brought in by the Indians, and at all events afforded no apology for inflicting vengeance upon thousands of peaceable and industrious settlers. The details of the expulsion are not stated; but it appears that a certain number were sent to Canada, others to the southern colonies, and some to France, while it is admitted that many contrived to conceal themselves. So complete, however, was the desolation, that, in 1770, twelve years after, there were found only a hundred and fifty families.

The island was confirmed to Britain, in 1763; but some years elapsed before measures, not remarkably judicious, were taken for this settlement. Lord Egremont formed a strange scheme, by which it was to be divided into twelve districts, ruled by as many barons, each of whom was to erect a castle on his own property, while that nobleman was to preside as lord paramount. This ridiculous plan was changed for another not much wiser. In August, 1767, a division was made into sixty-seven townships, of about twenty thousand acres each, which, with some reservations, were made over to individuals supposed to possess claims upon the government. They became bound to settle the country in ten years, to the extent of at least one person for two hundred acres. Their exertions in this respect, however, were not very effective; and when they resolved, as the only means of rendering the property valuable, to retail it in small lots, their prices were too high; nor could they grant that soccage tenure under the crown, which is esteemed the most secure.



CONSIDERABLE efforts, however, were at first made to rescue the island from its state of desolation. The proprietors succeeded in procuring for it a governor, independent of Nova Scotia, though, as already mentioned, there were only a hundred and fifty families resident on it. Mr. Patterson, appointed to that office, in 1770, brought back a number of the exiled Acadians. Tracadly was settled by Captain Macdonald with three hundred Highlanders; and Chief Baron Montgomery

made great efforts to fulfil his proprietary obligations. A beginning was thus made, a good report was spread, the colony received gradual accessions, and, in 1773, a constitution being given, the first House of Assembly was called. But the governor and General Fanning, who succeeded in 1789, were involved in contests with the proprietors and settlers, who accused them of culpable eagerness to acquire landed property for themselves; these feuds, however, seem to have caused no material injury.

In 1799, inconvenience having been felt from the island bearing the same name with the chief towns in New Brunswick and Newfoundland, it was changed to Prince Edward, in honour of the late Duke of Kent, who, as commander in America, had directed some valuable improvements. In 1803, the late Earl of Selkirk, who gave so great an impulse to emigration, carried over an important colony, consisting of about eight hundred Highlanders. He made the necessary arrangements with so much judgment, that the settlers soon became very prosperous, and with the friends who have since joined them, now amount to upwards of four thousand.

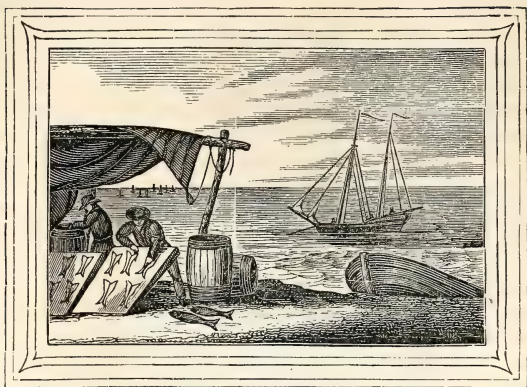
Governor Desbarres, who succeeded Fanning, was a man of talent; and though his administration was considered by no means prudent, yet, at no former period did the colony advance so rapidly. In 1813, he was succeeded by Mr. Smyth, whose violent and tyrannical conduct caused a general agitation in the colony. For several years previous to 1823, he had prevented the meeting of the House of Assembly, and when a committee of the inhabitants was appointed to draw up a petition for his removal, he caused them to be arrested. Mr. Stewart, the high-sheriff, however, though at the age of sixty-six, made his escape to Nova Scotia, and thence to England; where the real state of things was no sooner made known than the governor was recalled, and Lieutenant-colonel Ready appointed to succeed him. The conduct of this last gave general satisfaction; and, in conjunction with the House of Assembly, he passed many useful acts, and took various measures to promote the continued improvement of the colony. In 1831, Colonel Young received the appointment, and ruled as lieutenant-governor till 1836, in which year Sir John Harvey was named his successor. Sir John was very popular; but being, in 1837, removed to the government of New Brunswick his place was supplied by Sir Charles A. Fitzroy. Since this time, the island has presented little to attract the attention of the historian



ST JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND

IV. NEWFOUNDLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND is a large island, the most important of the British possessions adjacent to the eastern coast of North America. On one side it almost touches the continent, but on the other stretches far out into the Atlantic. Its entire circuit is one thousand miles. The most striking natural feature connected with the island, are the *Banks*, shallow places in the ocean, near which cod and other fish abound to such an extent as to supply the world, and give to the island, through the fisheries, a most important station in the rank of colonial provinces. The same productive character distinguishes the shores of Labrador. In these tempestuous seas, the nations of Europe and America have for ages laboured indefatigably with nets, lines, and every imaginable process, and yet not the slightest diminution of fruitfulness has ever been observed.



COD-FISHERY, NEWFOUNDLAND.

Newfoundland was discovered by Cabot, in 1497, and has since been claimed by Great Britain. Attention was speedily drawn to the cod-fisheries. In 1517, an English vessel reported having seen forty ships—Portuguese, French, and Spanish—employed on the coast. In 1536, an Englishman, named Hore, attempted a settlement, but failed. He was followed by the equally unfortunate Sir Humphrey Gilbert. During the whole of the sixteenth century, the English were less successful in the fisheries than other nations; and the failure of repeated attempts at settlement damped the spirit of the nation.

At the opening of the seventeenth century, schemes to colonize the northern territory were commenced on a large scale. These originated in Mr. Guy, a wealthy merchant of Bristol, who published several pamphlets, and induced a number of influential persons at court to engage in the undertaking. Among these were Lord Bacon, Lord Northampton, keeper of the seals, and Sir Francis Tanfield, chief baron of the Exchequer. These, with forty-one other persons, received a patent to colonize Newfoundland. They were invested with the entire property of the land, soil, and mines, and a general grant made of those privileges, which the crown could no find time to enumerate. The only reservation was the right of fishery on the coast of Newfoundland to any English subject.

Mr. Guy was appointed governor of the new colony. In 1610, he conveyed thither thirty-nine persons in three vessels, and employed them in constructing a dwelling and store-house, with an enclosure a hundred and twenty feet by ninety, in which were planted three pieces of ordnance. He gave flattering accounts of the country to government, and seems to have bent all his energies to the rearing up of a prosperous colony. On returning in the following season, he appointed William Colston in his stead, who was by no means so sanguine in his hopes and efforts as his predecessor. Guy returned in 1612. One of his first acts was to sail along the coast on a voyage of discovery; during which he dealt amicably with the natives. In a year, he again returned to England, and the colony afterwards languished greatly. Some time after, (1615,) Captain Whitbourne was sent out to hold a court of admiralty, and provide a check for the numerous abuses to which the fishermen were subjected; but he found it impossible to do more than specify the evils and propose remedies.



ABOUT the year 1621, Sir George Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore, obtained a grant of a tract from Cape St. Mary to the Bay of Bulls. His object was to form a settlement where members of the Roman Catholic religion might enjoy the free exercise of their opinions. Viscount Faulkland undertook to send a colony from Ireland, of which he was then lord-lieutenant. Other gentlemen made similar offers. Many efforts were made to secure the comforts of the settlers, and especially to enlist their feelings in the enterprise. But, although the colonists appear to have been numerous, few details are given of their progress. Lord Baltimore himself visited the colony, and built a strong fort and handsome house at Ferryland, where he resided for some time. About twenty years after this first plantation, the number of families in different parts of the coast had swelled to three hundred and fifty. The importance of the fishery grew with that of the colony, so that, in 1626, one hundred and fifty vessels sailed thither from Devonshire; and England began to supply the other countries of Europe with the products of the fisheries.



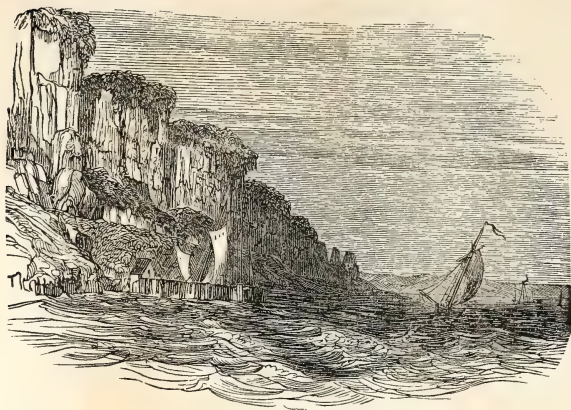
LORD BALTIMORE.

When Lord Baltimore returned to England, he became so engaged with his Maryland colony, as to find little time to bestow on the one already planted. The settlers consequently sunk into comparative neglect, and, giving up all attempts at culture of the soil, devoted themselves to the fisheries.

This branch of industry was now assuming that importance which it so well merits. The French embarked in it with their customary zeal, and even formed a colony in the Bay of Placentia, in order to carry it on more conveniently. In 1663, it was encouraged by the repeal of all duties. But this so far increased the

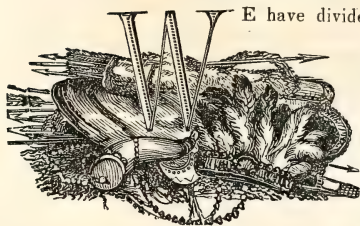
number of individual adventurers, that the British began to fear a decrease in the government profits. The barbarous remedy of rooting out the colony was proposed by Josiah Child, a merchant of London, and immediately carried into execution. Sir John Berry was employed to burn the houses and drive out the settlers. That officer seems to have mitigated as much as possible his cruel commission, and sent home strong remonstrances as to the misery which he had reluctantly occasioned. In 1676, Downing, a resident, procured an order from the king, that the people should be no further molested; but, at the same time, strict injunctions were issued, that no vessel should carry out any emigrants, or permit them to settle.

During the war with France, consequent to the Revolution of 1688, Newfoundland suffered severely. Although the English claimed the territory, the French had fortified a number of settlements, which they were now unwilling to abandon. In 1692, Commander Williams attacked Placentia, but without success; and an attempt, by the French, upon St. John, (1696,) was attended with a like result. A second trial resulted in its capture and destruction, and soon after Ibberville rooted out all the English stations, except Bona Vista and Carbonier. These successes were nullified by the treaty of Ryswick, which compensated each party for its losses during the war. During the war of the succession, Newfoundland was again taken by the French, but restored by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. Newfoundland then continued to increase in importance, with but slight interruptions, until the War of Independence. In 1775, the New England colonists were forbidden to participate in the fisheries; but, in revenge, these high-spirited men refused to supply the crews of vessels with provisions; a plan that reduced them almost to starvation. They thus found it necessary either to return home or to repair to some of the other colonies. At the close of the war, Great Britain repealed most of her onerous laws, and from that time both the settlements of Newfoundland and its fisheries increased rapidly in prosperity. The latter are now free to all nations, and numbers of ships are annually employed by the great maritime powers of England, France, and the United States, in this dangerous occupation. The total population of Newfoundland is at present about seventy thousand, of whom more than one-half are Roman Catholics.



ENTRANCE INTO HUDSON'S BAY

V. LABRADOR AND NEW BRITAIN.



WE have divided the territory north of Canada into two great natural divisions, known as Labrador and New Britain. The former country is of very little historical importance. The coast was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496, and was afterwards visited (1501) and named (Terra Labrador) by Gaspar Cortereal. During the sixteenth century, it was visited by various Europeans, and attempts made to settle and carry on the cod-fishery along the coast. An impulse was given to these efforts by the Moravian missionaries, who, in 1752, settled at Hopedale and other places. After numerous hardships, they obtained from government, in May, 1769, a tract of land, on which to settle and carry on their praiseworthy exertions. The missions have existed through great vicissitudes, until the present time. Their



TRADING WITH THE INDIANS FOR FURS

settlements are, however, small, and lying principally along the eastern coast. The interior is little known.

New Britain is an immense country, stretching from Canada to the Polar sea, with an average breadth of twenty-six hundred miles. The southern portion is a flat prairie land, traversed by large rivers, and gifted with a highly fruitful soil. The woody portion lies around Hudson's Bay; while the western territories are rugged and mountainous. The whole country owes its importance almost entirely to the valuable furs derived from the animals that swarm in every quarter.

The eastern coast of New Britain was early visited by Europeans.

in the hope of discovering a north-west passage to India. In 1517, Sebastian Cabot first visited Hudson's Bay, which he viewed as a communication to the coveted regions of the east. This voyage was subsequently forgotten; so that when Hudson, in 1610, sailed through the straits now bearing his name, and found a broad expanse of water, it was considered a new discovery, and named by him Hudson's Sea. He wintered within the straits, and finally perished by a mutiny of the crew.

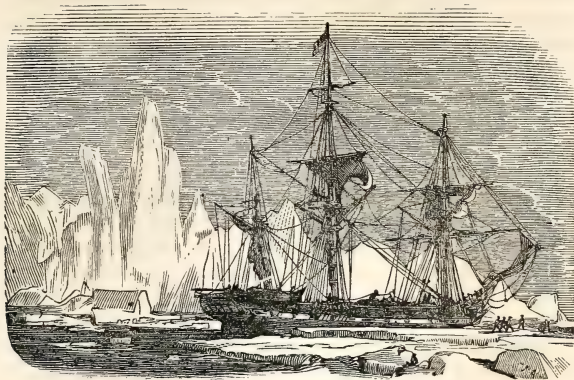
This expedition was followed by others, all of which steered in the same direction with Hudson, but were more fortunate in discovery. Southampton island was discovered by Sir Thomas Button, in 1612 or 1613. He named it Carey's Swan's-nest. He passed the winter at Nelson's river, first seen by him, but was prevented from pursuing his voyage by excessive cold and the consequent discouragement of his crew. Baffin's Bay was explored by Bylot and Baffin, in 1616. On the 5th of May, 1631, Luke Fox, an enterprising mariner, who had been equipped by the London merchants, sailed on a voyage of discovery. When off Cape Warwick, (June 21,) his progress was arrested by ice and currents. He describes an iceberg as a prodigious thing, sometimes mountain high; but here there were no pieces larger than a great church—their extent vary-



ing from a perch to two acres. On the 26th, these icebergs lay around him so thick, that he knew not what wind to pray for to extricate himself of them. On being released from this danger, he sailed to Southampton island, and then explored the bay, penetrating as far north as $66^{\circ} 47'$. Here his crew be-

came disheartened, and retracing his course, he returned to England. A similar expedition, sent out by the Bristol merchants, met with a like result. The crew passed a winter in Hudson's Bay, and suffered the most deplorable evils, until the return of summer.

In June, 1688, a Frenchman, named Grosseliez, sent out an expedition under the patronage of Prince Rupert of England. The crew wintered in a river called Rupert, and, on returning, presented so favourable a report, that the prince and other noblemen subscribed a capital of £10,500, and obtained a charter for the exclusive trade and administration of the countries around Hudson's Bay. Settlements were formed on Rupert's, Moose, and Albany rivers.



EXPEDITION OF CAPTAIN PARRY

and in 1685, two more on the *Nelson* and *Severn*. In 1690, their affairs were in such a flourishing condition, that the proprietors trebled their original capital. This success excited the envy of the French, who speedily made themselves masters of the principal settlements. They retained them with but little interruption until the peace of *Utrecht*, in 1713, which restored them to Britain.

Two companies were now formed in England, each of which strove to outdo its rival in discovery and colonization. These were the *Hudson's Bay Company* and the *North-western*. In 1771 *Samuel Hearne*, employed by the first, descended the *Copper mine River*, and found it terminating in an unknown part of the *Arctic Ocean*. In 1789, *Sir Alexander Mackenzie*, a partner of the *North-west Fur Company*, sailed down the stream bearing his name. and made observations which left little doubt of its opening into another portion of the same expanse. He also penetrated, in 1789, across the *Rocky Mountains*, and reached the coast of the *Pacific*. These discoveries kindled a species of enthusiasm in the British nation; and, after the close of the European war, in 1815, she engaged in a series of attempts to penetrate to *India*, by the *North-west*. Captain *Parry* repeatedly penetrated into the *Polar Sea*, and discovered a range of large islands, to the south of which were extensive coasts, stretching out of sight. Soon after. Captain *Ross*

discovered and named Boothia. Parry explored the northern coasts of Hudson's Bay, and discovered Fury and Hecla Straits. Dr. Richardson, and Captains Franklin and Beechy, also made extensive discoveries along the shores of the Polar Sea.

These expeditions led to another, terminating in some important results. Ross had sailed in 1829, and for four winters nothing was heard of him—a circumstance which excited the deepest anxiety. Accordingly, an expedition was fitted out to go in search of him, and Captain Back, an able officer who had served under Franklin and Richardson, volunteered to conduct it. He sailed from Liverpool, February 17, 1833, and, after visiting New York, ascended the Hudson to Albany. In April, he reached Montreal. After numerous difficulties in raising provisions and men, he sailed up the Ottawa, to a small stream leading into Nipissing Lake, and thence by the *Rivière des Français*, he entered Lake Huron. Then, crossing Lake Superior, Rainy, and Lake of the Woods, they reached Fort Alexander at the southern extremity of Lake Winnipeg. From the settlers in this vicinity he received the most marked attention, and was furnished by Governor Simpson with every convenience. The party then commenced their dreary journey toward the north, sometimes sailing along rivers, then carrying their canoes across almost impassable surfaces, and even fording torrents and cascades. The thermometer was sometimes 90° below zero; and a huge fire in a small apartment could not raise the temperature higher than 12° above zero. Ink and paint froze, and boxes of the best seasoned wood split. The skin of the hands cracked and opened in gashes. When the face was washed near the fire, before it could be dried the hair was clotted with ice. All living beings disappeared; no sound but that of the passing wind broke the awful stillness. Captain Back penetrated far to the north and passed the winter, but he found it almost impossible to prosecute further discoveries. In the following year, he was compelled to retrace his steps, and on the 8th of September arrived at Liverpool. This expedition was followed by others of a similar character. The Hudson's Bay Company now manages the affairs of the territory. There are four principal stations, between which the country is divided; York Fort, Moose Fort, Montreal, and Fort Vancouver. Smaller stations are scattered throughout the territory, some of which afford protection and support to pious missionaries, who are engaged in the laudable work of instructing the natives in religion and civilization.



ASTORIA.

CHAPTER XI.

HISTORY OF OREGON.



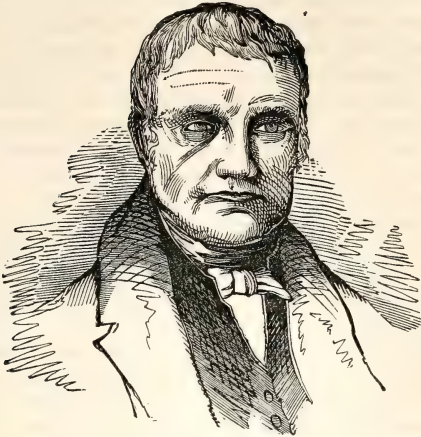
HE term Oregon has, until lately, been employed to designate the country extending from California to the Russian possessions, and from the Pacific to the Rocky Mountains. It was visited as early as 1579 by Sir Francis Drake, who, pursuing the track already commenced by the Spanish navigators, sailed along the coast as far north as 48° . It is very probable that ever previous to this the Spaniards had sailed further northward than the extremity of California. In 1598, D'Aguilar, commander of an expedition under Philip III., of Spain, visited the coast, and discovered

the mouth of the Columbia; but his account of the expedition was treated by his countrymen with unmerited neglect.

For nearly two centuries after that period, the Spaniards made no further attempts either at discovery or settlement; and the distant region of Oregon seems to have been considered by all nations as an unknown territory. But when maritime enterprise revived in the latter part of the eighteenth century, Spain established ten stations (1769—1779) along the coast of Northern California. In 1774 Juan Perez sailed from California as far north as 55°. On his return he anchored in San Lorenzo bay, probably Nootka Sound. Nearly the same ground was passed over in 1775, by another Spanish expedition under Don Bruno Heceta. In 1776, Captain Cook, of England, examined the western coast from 44° to Behring's Straits.

On account of the discoveries of Drake and Cook, Great Britain claimed all Oregon, and established small posts throughout the territory, under the auspices of the Hudson's Bay Company. It was further visited by Vancouver, in 1791, who made several important explorations. But a new impulse was given to adventure in this quarter, by a series of enterprises conducted by land. Mackenzie discovered the Frazer river, (1793,) and explored it to a considerable distance. In the early part of the present century, Mr. David Thompson, surveyor and astronomer of the British North-west Company, crossed the Rocky Mountains into Oregon, and explored a branch of the Columbia. In 1807, he established a trading-post near British America, and spent there two years; at the end of which time he founded another station on the Flathead. Altogether he spent several years in the country, making valuable topographical observations upon the lands bordering on the Columbia.

The American Revolution having secured the Independence of the United States, the merchants of that country manifested, with increased ardor, that spirit of commercial enterprise which had been arrested during the arduous struggle. On the 7th of May, 1792, Captain Robert Gray, in the ship *Columbia*, of Boston, entered the Columbia river, to which he gave the name of his vessel. His is the first definite account given of that stream. During the administration of Mr. Jefferson, Lewis and Clark were dispatched (August, 1805,) on an expedition to explore the region beyond the mountains. They reached the latter range, in latitude 44° north, crossed it, discovered the southern head-waters of the



JOHN JACOB ASTOR.

Columbia, floated down its stream for about six hundred miles, then struck off in a westerly direction, and, on the 15th of November, reached its mouth. Here they built some huts, remained in them during the winter, and, in 1806, returned to the United States, exploring, in their course, many of the tributaries of the Columbia. This, until very recently, was the only occasion in which the Rocky Mountains have been crossed by persons acting in a public capacity.

In 1806, Mr. Frazer, of the North-west Company, established a trading post on Frazer's river, in about latitude 54° ; and, in 1811, Mr. Thompson, agent of the same company, discovered the northern head-waters of the Columbia, (52° north,) and erected some huts on its banks. In the same year, John Jacob Astor, of New York, despatched an expedition, both by sea and land, which met near the mouth of the Columbia, and erected on its southern bank a little fort. This was named Astoria, and was intended to be the centre of an extensive trade between America and China. During the war of 1812, 't was captured by the British, and the name changed to Fort George; but by the treaty of Ghent it was restored to the Americans. Not long afterwards, Astoria was abandoned as a government settlement.

On the 22d of February, 1819, Spain and the United States estab-

lished, by the Florida treaty, the forty-second parallel as their mutual boundary, from the source of the Arkansas down to the Pacific—the former power yielding her claim to all territories north of that line. In 1824–5, the Russians effected an agreement with the United States, renouncing all right to any land south of $54^{\circ} 40'$. A similar treaty was stipulated with Great Britain; and thus the tract between 42° north and $54^{\circ} 40'$, was left to be apportioned between the two great leading powers of Europe and America.

Negotiations for establishing a permanent boundary were almost immediately commenced. The Americans had already offered (1818) the 49° north latitude, as that boundary, but this was refused; and, in 1824, they renewed it. The British government claimed to the Columbia. Both efforts were fruitless; and a third, in 1826, was attended with a like result. On the 6th of August, 1827, the two nations agreed on a resolution of "joint occupancy," leaving the territory free to the hunters and companies of each, to carry on trade and build posts. From that time until 1845, the whole region was under the almost entire control of the Hudson's Bay Company, whose members established numerous posts along its northern and western limits. But during the great presidential canvass for 1844, the subject of a definite boundary to Oregon became a great measure, an item of politics; and when President Polk assumed the executive chair, public interest, both in the United States and England, became painfully awakened to the claims of the two rivals. The President soon showed a disposition to have the subject brought to an immediate issue. In the message of December, 1845, he recommended the termination of joint occupancy, and claimed the whole of Oregon, up to $54^{\circ} 40'$. The British were firm in maintaining their claim, and made active preparations for war. This resource now seemed inevitable, and the question of its occurrence rested wholly with the Senate. That august body acted in a manner worthy the highest representatives of a Christian nation. On the 16th of April, 1846, the Senate passed a resolution authorizing the President to notify Great Britain, at his discretion, of the abrogation of the terms of convention which had passed the resolution of joint occupancy. Meanwhile, negotiations were actively carried on with a view of concluding a treaty. In June, the English ambassador proposed the boundary line of 49° , and the free navigation of the Columbia to that point, as the basis of an agreement; and the Senate authorized the President to accept it. This was

done, and on the 16th the new treaty was transmitted by the Executive, and passed on the 18th. By this instrument, the boundary is the 49° of north latitude, from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, and thence through Queen Charlotte's Sound and the Straits of Fuca to the Pacific—thus giving England the whole of Vancouver's island. The Hudson's Bay Company, during the continuance of their charter, are authorized to navigate the Columbia to the 49°.



MISSIONARY SCENE NEAR LAKE WINNEPEG



AURORA BOREALIS IN THE NORTHERN REGIONS

CHAPTER XII.

GREENLAND.



GREENLAND is a large country stretching from latitude $59^{\circ} 49'$ north, northward to an unknown distance. It appears to be separated from the continent by Baffin's Bay. The population is estimated at six thousand, of whom only a hundred and fifty are Europeans. The northern regions are locked in perpetual ice, and support no living creature.

This country was visited as early as 982, by Eric Rauda, a Norwegian, whose adventures are narrated in the first chapter of the present work. He established a settlement at Brattalid, near an inlet, which he denominated Eric's Sound. His companions founded Heriulfsness, Rafn, and other places—names which are still extant in Greenland. Eric remained three years in his colony, and, on returning to Iceland, published a pompous and false account of the new-found region, naming it Greenland. Many adventurers were induced to settle, and in the eleventh century Christianity was introduced by two British missionaries. In 1121, the colony had

flourished to such an extent that a hundred and twenty hamlets were stretched along the eastern coast, and one hundred and ten on the western—covering altogether a region of about five hundred miles.

But though this colony commenced under such favourable auspices, it was destined to a mournful fate. Long before the time of Columbus, all traces of European civilization had disappeared from Greenland; and the settlement itself seems to have been almost entirely forgotten. The cause of this disaster is unknown; but for some time after it became known, the Danes attempted to reach Greenland and ascertain the fate of the sufferers. After the re-discovery and settlement of America, the subject was again agitated in Northern Europe. In 1708, a Danish clergyman, named Hans Egede, determined to visit Greenland, in order, if possible, to discover some traces of the lost colony, and especially to attempt the conversion of the natives. After ten years' labour and opposition, he was intrusted by the King of Denmark with a vessel, which he named the Hope. He sailed May 2, 1721, carrying with him two hundred and forty settlers, besides his wife and four children. They landed in Ball's river, and began immediate preparations for a permanent settlement. They soon gained the esteem of the natives, and began to instruct them in Christianity. They were liberally encouraged by the king, who sent not only provisions and other necessities, but also artificers and soldiers to build a garrison and fort. On the death of King Frederick, government grew negligent of the distant settlement, and finally ordered its return. Egede, with ten others, remained, and two years after, the new monarch, having relaxed his opposition, sent out fresh provisions and three Moravian missionaries. These settled New Hernhutt, on Ball's river, and with Egede commenced, with renewed vigour, the instruction of the natives. Their labours were attended with success; and in 1747, they erected the first church ever built in Greenland. From this time, their own number, as well as that of their converts, steadily increased, and the colony finally assumed commercial importance. In 1837, West Greenland contained thirteen colonies, fifteen commercial establishments, and ten missionary stations. The principal of the latter are Lichenfels, Lichtenau, and New Hernhutt. Uppernavic, latitude $72^{\circ} 30'$, is the most northern station. The principal exports are whale oil, eider down, and the skins of reindeer, seal and bear.



CHAPTER XIII.

RUSSIAN AMERICA.



HE extensive region known as Russian America, is a country of ice, rocks, islands, barrens, and forests. It includes the Peninsula of Alaska and the Aleutian Islands. Its condition in 1837 is thus described by an officer of the Hudson's Bay Company:—"The Russian Fur Company's principal establishment on the north-west coast is named New Archangel, formerly Sitka, and situated in Norfolk Sound, in north latitude 57° , west longitude $132^{\circ} 20'$. It is maintained as a regular military establishment, garrisoned by about three hundred officers and men. with good natural defences, mounting sixteen short eighteens, and twelve long nine-pounders, and is the head-quarters of the governor of the Russian army. The Russians have other establishments on the coast and islands to the north of New Archangel, and one fort, Ross, in the Bay of Brogeda—in all, ten establishments on the north-west coast of America. They have more-over twelve vessels, from a hundred up to four hundred tons burden, armed with ten guns each, of different calibre. All the officers, and most of the people employed in their sea and land service, belong to the Russian army and navy, receive pay from the Russian government, and their services, while attached to the Rus-



SUBTERRANEAN HUT IN NORTHERN REGIONS.

sian Fur Company, entitle them to the advantages of promotion pension, etc., in like manner as if employed in active service in the army and navy. They have, moreover, attached to these settlements a number of Indians of the Kodiak tribe, who are usually employed in hunting and fishing, but are under no fixed engagement, being considered as slaves. Their annual returns in furs are in value from £80,000 to £100,000."

This country was discovered and settled almost entirely by the Russians. As early as 1648, an expedition of seven vessels, under the Cossack Semoen Deshniew, sailed from Kolyma, and after four being wrecked, the remainder pushed forward as far as Behring's Strait, and through to the mouth of the Anadir. In 1710, three men, who had been sent by the Russians to exhort the Tchuktzki Indians to submission, received information of the Great Country, (America,) and also of the Aleutian islanders, who, among other peculiarities, built their houses under ground, extending them on all sides, so that numerous families could live in one. These subterraneous mansions were lighted by lamps, and divided into as many apartments as they contained families—all disgustingly filthy and desolate.

The ardent ambition of Peter the Great induced him to second all these efforts. Only a few days before his death, he authorized the



PETER THE GREAT.

fitting out of an expedition, whose object was to ascertain if Asia was separated from America by a strait. It consisted of two vessels, under the command of Vitus Behring, a Dane. The soldiers were led by Alexoi Tshirikof, a Russian officer. Part of the expedition was conducted by land, and part by water. On the 18th of July, 1741, Behring discovered the continent of America, in latitude $58^{\circ} 28'$. The appearance of the land was grand, but gloomy. Mountains of great elevation, covered with snow, extended far inland. One summit, rising to a towering height above the rest, was named Mount St. Elias. The nearest headlands were denominated Cape St. Elias and Cape Hermogenes. Alaska and the Aleutian islands were also visited, and among the latter the crew were obliged to winter. Before spring, the scurvy appeared and made such ravages that Behring and many of his men died. In August, 1742, the survivors succeeded in reaching Kamtschatka. This voyage established the fact of the close proximity of the two continents, and opened to the Russian government the road to a lucrative trade. Behring's Strait was named after its unfortunate and lamented discoverer.

A few years previous to this expedition, the Russians had reached Japan by way of Kamtschatka, and this formed an additional incentive to adventure. But although the Aleutian islands had been visited by Behring, the government appears not to have been fully aware of their discovery until 1750, when the first tribute of furs was brought from them to Okotsk. Since that time, they have been regularly visited; and on them, together with a coast of three hundred leagues beyond the polar circle, the indefatigable Russians have established those settlements and factories which support the great and advantageous fur trade carried on with China by the Russian Empire.





SEBASTIAN CABOT

CHAPTER XIV.

SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA.



NOTWITHSTANDING the early discovery of the American continent by Sebastian Cabot, and the various explorations of the northern coast by several of his countrymen, no considerable effort for establishing a permanent settlement was made until the reign of Queen Elizabeth. These, however, were not owing to the personal patronage of the queen herself, but rather to the enterprise and perseverance of private individuals. One of the most distinguished of these was Sir Walter Raleigh, although, previous to his endeavours, efforts had been made by Sir Humphrey Gilbert and others, not only to colonize

but also to open a passage to the rich trade of India and China, by sailing around the continent through Hudson's Strait.

In 1584, Raleigh obtained a patent from the crown, conferring on him and his heirs for ever the possession and enjoyment of all lands to be discovered, with their revenue, after deducting one-fifth of the gold and silver for the crown, and power to seize all vessels trading to the coast without his license, unless driven there by stormy weather. Clothed with these ample powers, Raleigh immediately sent two ships under Amidas and Barlow, with directions to explore the coast south of that which had proved fatal to Gilbert. In April, 1584, these two commanders set sail, and after touching at the Canaries and among the West Indies, came in sight of the Carolinas, July 4th. After sailing along the coast for a distance of a hundred and twenty miles, during which the senses were feasted by far stretching hills, clothed in the most luxurious verdure, and enlivened by rills and streams of crystal clearness, they entered Ocracock inlet, and landed upon what they supposed was the main land. It proved to be the island, now called Wocoken, opening into Pamlico Sound. On the third day after landing, they observed an Indian walking on the beach, whom they invited on board and gave him some food and wine. He then departed well satisfied. Other natives appeared, and finally Granganimeo, the king's brother, escorted by fifty principal persons. Some trading took place, highly advantageous to the English; after which they again set sail. The adjoining coasts and sounds were then explored, when the navigator returned home, carrying with them two natives, Manteo and Wanchese. They gave a most flattering report of the country, declaring its soil to be "the most plentiful, sweet, fruitful, and wholesome of all the world;" and the people "the most gentle, loving, and faithful, void of all guile and treason, and such as lived after the manner of the golden age."

The desire to possess so delightful a region aroused a spirit of adventure hitherto unknown in England. Determined to establish a colony, Raleigh immediately fitted out seven small vessels, manned with a hundred and eight men, under Sir Richard Grenville. The fleet sailed in April, 1585, and, after a circuitous voyage, by way of the Canaries and West Indies, reached the coast of Carolina, in the latter end of June. They found the country as had been described to them, and after landing, penetrated some distance into the interior. The Indians, gratified by former presents, received them with



GRENVILLE BURNING AN INDIAN VILLAGE.

delight; but their kindness met with an ill reward. Missing a silver cup, the English, in revenge, set fire to a village and devastated the adjoining fields. They then chose a spot near the shore as a place for settling.

The great object of these adventurers appears to have been the discovery of gold. Dreams of lands whose forests dripped with precious aromatics, whose rivers washed down sands of gold, or sparkling gems—of an El Dorado, whose gorgeous magnificence and mines of inexhaustible wealth realized the wildest romances of Marco Polo or Ariosto—formed the main-spring of exertion. No one imagined that the first duty of a fresh colony is an immediate tillage of the soil.

In August, Grenville sailed for England, leaving the management of the settlement with Ralph Lane. This officer had received from a distinguished native chief, named Menatonon, whom he held in custody, accounts of a region in the interior, prolific in pearls, and in a metal paler and softer than copper, which the inhabitants used for making ornamental plates. Without further delay, Lane selected a band and commenced the ascent of the Roanoke. Delighted with the majestic appearance of the river and the surrounding woods, and allured by the promises of provisions, the party continued advanc-

ing with culpable carelessness, until their supply of food was exhausted. The governor then warned them to return, but having two dogs with them, they determined to make provisions of them, rather than, by abandoning the expedition, to lose the glorious fortune in prospect. On a sudden, they discovered lights moving through the woods, and soon a voice called to their Indian guide, Manteo, to be on guard. This was followed by a shower of arrows. The English landed and pursued the enemy without success; and wearied, chagrined, and famished, they steered their course homeward. Broth made of dog's flesh and sassafras leaves served them as food, until they reached the settlement.

Lane found the settlement in a state of alarm bordering on mutiny—the Indians having threatened its utter extinction. For awhile, his presence restored order; but soon after, the consternation was renewed, on ascertaining that the Indian tribes had entered into a conspiracy to starve their new visitors, by laying waste their corn-fields, destroying the fishing-stations, and retiring from the neighbourhood. They also resolved on a general night attack, and the colonists were probably saved from ruin only by the faithfulness of the injured Menatonon, who disclosed the whole plot. Soon after, a battle was fought, in which the Indians were defeated; and their principal chief Pemisapan, being enticed to an interview, was, with some followers, treacherously shot. These cruel and unwise proceedings completely alienated the affections of the Indians, and destroyed all hope of deriving assistance from them.

The colonists now began to waken to a reality of their situation. No prospect appeared of realizing their golden dreams, while absolute want stared them in the face; the supplies promised at Easter had not arrived in June; and they were in momentary dread of perishing either by famine or the arrows of the savages.

Amid these dispositions, a fleet of twenty-three vessels was seen in the offing; and after some alarm lest it should prove a hostile squadron, the joyful announcement was made, of its being that of Sir Francis Drake, returning from his victorious expedition against the Spanish main. That gallant officer readily agreed to give them a store of provisions, a sloop of seventy tons, and other small craft, with which they might either explore the coasts or return to England; the latter, it is probable, being the real object. A violent storm, however, destroyed these vessels, thus defeating the arrangement; and Lane, upon the earnest entreaty of the settlers, con-



RALEIGH.

vented himself with obtaining a place on board the fleet, by which he and his adventurers might be conveyed home.

The conclusion that Raleigh had deserted them was quite unfounded. A few days after this hasty departure, there arrived a brig of a hundred tons, provided with every thing needful for their wants; but, to the utter amazement of the crew, there were no colonists to supply. After sailing about some time, and satisfying themselves of the fact, they too returned to Europe. This was another hasty step; for a fortnight had not elapsed, when Sir Richard Grenville appeared, bringing three well-appointed ships, laden with every means of supporting and enlarging the colony. His dismay may be conceived, when neither the vessel previously despatched, nor one Englishman, could be found within those savage precincts. He, therefore, left merely fifteen men to erect a fort and keep a certain hold of the country until further reinforcements could be sent out.

All this complication of failure, blunder, and disaster did not discourage Raleigh. In April of the following year he fitted out a

new expedition of three ships and a hundred and fifty persons, led by John White, who was appointed governor, with twelve assistants, who also, perhaps, contributed to the expense. Attempts were made to establish it on a somewhat more solid footing. Implements of agriculture were provided; several families went out, and the party including seventeen females and nine boys, arrived in July, and proceeded to the former settlement. Here a dreadful scene met their eyes; the fort was rased to the ground; the houses, though still standing, were open and tenantless; the floors overgrown with shrubs and weeds, on which deer were feeding. The bones of one man lay scattered on the ground; while of the rest not a trace remained. After anxious inquiry, it was found that a band of Indians had surprised and burned the fort, when the English, rushing out to save themselves, were either killed or chased into the woods, where they soon perished.



HITE began by soliciting from the Indian chiefs a renewal of their former alliance, promising the most friendly treatment, and that every thing which had passed should be forgiven. They announced that an answer would be returned in seven days; and when the time elapsed without its being fulfilled, he determined on a hostile expedition. Led by Manteo, he attacked a party, and drove them into the forest; but was dismayed to find that by mistake he had fallen upon one of the few friendly tribes. He then relinquished farther proceedings; but all hope of conciliatory arrangements was lost.

As winter approached, and the vessel was about to return to Europe, the colonists began seriously to view their situation. They could look for nothing from the Indians but the most deadly hostility, while the raising of supplies for themselves was a work of time and uncertainty. They therefore joined in an earnest entreaty to White, that he would accompany the ship, and exert himself in bringing to them further aid and support. He strongly objected, on the ground that it would have an appearance as if he were deserting his own colony; but they insisted, and having delivered a written testimony, signed and sealed, stating that the proposal came from themselves, he consented. There had been born to him, during his residence, a grand-daughter, Virginia Dare, who is supposed by Mr. Bancroft to be the first offspring of English parents on the soil of the United States



REPARATIONS for resisting the famous Spanish Armada interrupted Raleigh's efforts at colonization. Meanwhile, White's two vessels, which had been furnished him by Sir Walter, were, through his own imprudence, much injured and obliged to return to England; while Grenville was retained in the fleet destined to resist the Spaniards. The colony was left to languish until the defeat of the Armada. Even Raleigh seems to have been somewhat discouraged; and after spending forty thousand pounds in thankless exertions, he turned his attention to other objects. His privileges were however transferred to a company who undertook to support the settlement. In consequence of unavoidable delay, White was unable to sail until May, 1590. He reached Roanoke about the middle of August.

Again the colony was in a state of utter desolation; though there appeared reason to hope that it had removed to a more favourable site, formerly projected. This was the island of Croatoan, fifty miles distant, in which Manteo resided, and where they had met a most friendly reception. In case of removal it had been stipulated that the letters *CRO* should be carved on the bark of a tree, which were found, and elsewhere the full name Croatoan. A cross was to have indicated a disastrous removal: and the sign of evil was absent. Chests with various stores had been buried in the earth; some were entire; others had been discovered and rifled by the Indians. On the whole, White concluded that all was well, and began to steer for the new station; but meeting with some difficulties, and the season being advanced, it was very coolly resolved to make for the West Indies, trade there, and touch at the colony on his return home. After coming out into the open ocean, the wind was so adverse to his proposed course, and so favourable to that for Britain, that the latter was adopted, and he arrived at home in October.

After this, the colony seems to have been totally neglected by every one except Raleigh. This remarkable man sent out, at different periods, five vessels, the last in 1602; but, unfortunately, none reached the settlement. From that time, nothing was ever discovered of this unfortunate colony. Its members were either extirpated, or became amalgamated with the neighbouring Indians

After this, the colony seems to have been totally neglected by every one except Raleigh. This remarkable man sent out, at different periods, five vessels, the last in 1602; but, unfortunately, none reached the settlement. From that time, nothing was ever discovered of this unfortunate colony. Its members were either extirpated, or became amalgamated with the neighbouring Indians



GOSNOLD'S VOYAGE.

Notwithstanding this series of disasters, a vessel sailed for America, in 1602, under Bartholomew Gosnold, with thirty-two men, twelve of whom intended to settle. Striking directly across the ocean, he came upon the coast of Massachusetts; and, after sailing onward some time, reached a bold promontory, which, from the great quantity of fish caught in the vicinity, he named Cape Cod. Steering in a southern course, they passed some dangerous promontories and at length landed on a pleasant island, to which they gave the name of Martha's Vineyard. Re-embarking, they entered Buzzard's Bay, which, from its spaciousness, was denominated Gosnold's Hope. Elizabeth Island, within its circuit, was chosen as a desirable place of settlement. The soil was clothed with noble trees, and with sassafras, which, among other valuable plants, was then esteemed a medicine of sovereign virtue. Some pulse being sown, grew, in a fortnight, to half a foot. They debarked, on the mainland, which appeared "the goodliest they ever saw, replenished with fair fields." Having erected a fort, and collected a cargo, chiefly of sassafras, they prepared to return, but, at this crisis the settlers were dismayed with the prospect of being left on so remote a shore, with but a small quantity of provisions, and the fate of similar expeditions still fresh to the memory. They, therefore, abandoned the idea of remaining, and went on board with the rest.



ALTHOUGH not successful in its immediate object, this expedition awoke England to the advantages to be derived from colonizing her American possessions. Hakluyt, the great promoter of discovery, prevailed upon some merchants of Bristol to equip two small vessels, to which Raleigh gave a cheerful consent. They were placed under Martin Pring, who, after visiting the New England coast, gathering sassafras, and bartering with the natives, confirmed, on his return, the favourable account of the country which had been given by his predecessor. This expedition was followed by another under George Weymouth, patronized by Lord Arundel and the Earl of Southampton. He sailed March 31, 1605, and reached the American coast May 13th, in latitude 41° . After sailing a considerable distance, he entered Penobscot Bay in his pinnace, and, soon after, came in sight of a river which the crew regarded as the largest they had ever seen. It was navigable for very large vessels, free from rocks or shoals, and bordered along its sides by thick pine woods. In the distance, hills and mountains relieved the prospect. The English immediately commenced bartering with the Indians, and obtained valuable furs at a cheap rate. They then embarked and sailed for England, carrying with them five of the natives who had been decoyed on board.

This series of voyages conveyed to Britain a much higher idea than had yet been entertained of her transatlantic dominion. It was found to include a range of territory stretching over eleven degrees of latitude, all in the temperate climates, diversified with noble rivers and harbours, and, wherever visited, displaying a luxuriant fertility. This prospect rekindled all the enthusiasm of enterprise and hopes of wealth. An association was formed by Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, Wingfield, Popham, with other men of rank and eminent merchants, for the purpose of colonizing this vast region. James I., who was fond of such undertakings, and had employed them successfully for the improvement of some ruder parts of Scotland and Ireland, was ready to give every encouragement. The adventurers were divided into two companies; the one from London for the southern, the other from Bristol and the west for the northern parts of Virginia. The former were allowed to choose any spot between the thirty-fourth and forty-first degrees of latitude; the latter between the thirty-eighth and forty-fifth. Three degrees were

thus common between both ; but collision was prevented by enacting that wherever one had fixed its seat, the other should choose theirs at least a hundred miles distant. From that first station, each company was to possess fifty miles of coast on each side ; their territory was thence to stretch the same distance inland, and the same out to sea, including all islands within the range. These terms deserve notice, as they seem to have been much misapprehended by Chalmers, Bancroft, and, indeed, most other writers. The coast was not divided between the companies, nor had either an exclusive right to their own portions beyond the space of a hundred miles square which they were allowed to choose. This may serve to acquit successive princes of the repeated infractions of the charter with which they have been charged. Within this range the associations obtained full property in all the lands, natural resources and objects of every kind, with only the usual exception of a fifth of the gold and a fifteenth of the copper. The revenue produced by fines and light import-duties was to be enjoyed by them for twenty-one years, after which it was to be paid into the royal treasury. They were not, however, invested with those kingly attributes which had been lavished on Gilbert and Raleigh. James lodged the government in two councils, one resident in England, the other in the colony, and claimed the right of appointing both ; but, having exercised it in regard to the first, he allowed them to nominate the Virginian members. He busied himself, moreover, in preparing a code of "orders and instructions," a proceeding, as Mr. Chalmers observes, decidedly unconstitutional, but controverted by no one. The colonists and their posterity were declared English subjects, yet were invested with no political rights, not even trial by jury, unless in capital charges ; minor offences were punished arbitrarily by the council. The English church was exclusively established. Strict and laudable injunctions were given for the mild and equitable treatment of the natives.

On the 19th of December, 1606, this famous expedition sailed from London, in three small vessels, and numbering a hundred and five persons. Among these were George Percy, Gosnold, and Captain John Smith. The whole was commanded by Captain Newport.

Unfortunately, the fair prospects of this expedition were in the beginning clouded, through the caprice of the king. The names and instructions of the council had been enclosed in a box, which was



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

not to be opened until the expedition had arrived at its destination. Consequently, no one could claim immediate command. The energy of Smith, with his open, manly bearing, led to his promotion as leader. He thus became an object of jealousy to those higher in rank, who, on the pretence that he designed setting aside the council and assuming royalty, caused him to be arrested and confined until some time after the voyage.

In April, 1607, the colonists came in sight of America; but, in the endeavour to effect a landing, they encountered a violent storm, which drove them to the opening of Chesapeake Bay. The magnificent prospect of this noble body of water, so completely ravished them, as to cause immediate forgetfulness of all their misfortunes. After ascending it some distance, they entered a large river, which they named after the king, and spent seventeen days in exploring it. A spot, fifty miles from its mouth, was chosen as a place of settlement, and called Jamestown. On landing, some Indians were seen, who at first showed symptoms of hostility; but, soon becoming friendly, they brought food and other necessities to their new visitors.

On opening the box of instructions, Smith's name was found among the council; but the jealousy of his rivals excluded him for some time from his privileges. He, however, accompanied an expe-

dition up the river, led by Newport, who visited Powhatan, king of the neighbouring tribes. They were received kindly, but, on returning to Jamestown, they found it in imminent danger of a continued attack by several neighbouring tribes. A battle actually ensued in which one (a boy) was killed, and seventeen wounded. The colonists then commenced the erection of a palisade fort, which was finished in June. Scarcely was this accomplished, when Smith was brought to trial on alleged charges of treason, but after trial was honourably acquitted—Wingfield, his accuser, being condemned to pay him a fine of £200, which Smith generously threw into the common stock. Mr. Hunt, the clergyman, succeeded in producing at least an appearance of harmony, cemented by partaking together the Christian communion.

On the 15th of June, Newport sailed for England, leaving the colonists in a state little better than anarchy. The soil was indeed fruitful; but, by an unhappy arrangement, all the produce for the first five years was to be in common, and distributed by the council according to their respective wants. This system, by preventing all hope of personal advancement, other than that dependent upon the advancement of the community, paralyzed all exertions. Raising scarcely any crop the first year, they were dependent on the supplies from home, which were not only precarious, but of inferior quality. A slender allowance of this unwholesome food, bad river water, and exposure to a new climate, soon spread disease so widely that often ten men could not be found fit for service. Before autumn, fifty of their number, including Gosnold, the projector of the settlement, had died. Loud murmurings were heard on every side. Wingfield, the president, was accused of living in plenty, and even of meditating a departure while others were starving. He was consequently deposed and his place supplied by Ratcliffe, who, being of an easy temper, left the whole management to Smith, which was what the colonists desired.

This celebrated man soon gave ample proof that his administration was to be the dawn of better things to the colonists. On an expedition down the river, he procured a quantity of food, and being attacked by the savages, repelled them in such a manner as to inspire them with respect. They sought an alliance with him, and furnished a boat-load of provisions.

Smith returned just in time to prevent Wingfield and another from seizing a vessel and sailing to England. His supplies, with



POWHATAN.

flocks of water-fowl which came at the approach of winter, relieved their wants; and having in his rambles discovered the great river Chickahominy, he determined to explore it to its source, not, it is said, without a hope of thereby reaching the South Sea, viewed then as the grand source of wealth. He was impelled, it was imagined, by the taunts of some of his enemies in the colony, but we rather think only by his own adventurous spirit. He ascended first in his barge, then in a canoe, and twenty miles on foot, attended only by his Indian guides. But three hundred natives, who had traced his steps, surprised and dispersed his party, and then came suddenly upon himself. He made astonishing efforts for safety, and fastening with his garters a native ally to his person, presented him to the enemy as a buckler; then he ran to the canoe, which he would have reached had he not suddenly sunk in a deep morass, where he was overtaken, and, to escape from perishing with cold, obliged to surrender.

He had now reason to consider his last hour approaching, and a circle had, in fact, been formed to shoot him. With characteristic presence of mind he asked for the chief, showed his compass-dial, pointed out its singular movements, and endeavoured to explain the responding phenomena of the earth and sky. Whether they understood these indications or not, they were awed with astonish-

ment as if admitted to contemplate a supernatural object. On a signal from their leader, they laid down their bows and arrows, and led him under strict guard to their capital. He was there exhibited to the women and children; and a wild war-dance was performed round him, in fantastic measures and with frightful yells and contortions. He was then shut up in a long house, and supplied at every meal with as much bread and venison as would have dined twenty men; but, receiving no other sign of kindness, he began to dread that they were fattening in order to eat him. Even without such a precise purpose, this festive entertainment is known among savages to be no uncommon prelude to torture and death. They asked him aid in reducing Jamestown, while he sought an opportunity of making his way thither. In the course of this manœuvring, a message sent to that place, gave him an opportunity to display the powers of writing, which was considered by them as a species of magical spell. At length, after being paraded and exhibited in various villages, he was led to Pamunkey, the residence of Powhatan. It was here his doom was sealed. The chief received him in pomp, wrapped in a spacious robe of racoon skins, with all the tails hanging down. Behind, appeared two long lines of men and women, with faces painted red, heads decked with white down, and necks quite encircled by chains of beads. A lady of rank presented water to wash his hands, another a bunch of feathers to dry them. A long deliberation was then held, and the result proved fatal. Two large stones were placed before Powhatan, and by the united efforts of the attendants Smith was dragged to the spot, his head laid on one of them, and the mighty club was raised, a few blows of which were to terminate his life. In this last extremity, when every hope seemed past, a very unexpected interposition took place. Pocahontas, the youthful and favourite daughter of this savage chief, was seized with those tender emotions which form the ornament of her sex. Advancing to her father, she, in the most earnest terms, supplicated mercy for the stranger; and though all her entreaties were lost on that savage heart, her zeal only redoubled. She ran to Smith, took his head in her arms, laid her own upon it, and declared that the first death-blow must fall upon her. The barbarian's breast was at length softened, and the life of the Englishman was spared.

Our adventurer, being naturally expected to render some services in return for so great a boon, employed himself in making hatchets, beads, and other ornaments for the father and daughter. At the end



CAPTAIN SMITH SURVEYING CHESAPEAKE BAY.

of two days, he was conducted into a large house, where, amid hideous and doleful noises, Powhatan rushed in, with two hundred attendants, strangely disguised, and their faces blackened. Smith again thought his last hour had come, but the chief announced these as signs of peace and friendship; and he was forthwith sent to Jamestown, on the sole condition of transmitting thence two culverins and a millstone, a promise faithfully fulfilled.

Smith found a majority of the colonists preparing to return to England. He adopted the most energetic measures to prevent this, and, with the aid of some faithful adherents, pointed a gun at their vessel, declaring that she must either stop or sink. He also broke up a conspiracy, and sent the ringleaders to England. Meanwhile, they were not left without support. Pocahontas constantly visited them with provisions; and soon Captain Newport arrived with a hundred and twenty emigrants and abundant supplies. The captain visited Powhatan, and opened with him a trade on liberal terms.

Unfortunately, the new emigrants were not of the character proper for a youthful colony. They had visited America for the purpose of obtaining gold; and to cultivate the soil, or follow up plans for obtaining provisions, was the last of their expectations or purposes. Having discovered some yellow glittering earth, they sanguinely supposed it to be gold dust, and, abandoning every thing else, began to load their vessels with it. Even the authority of Smith was insufficient to wean them from this unhappy mania.

Unable to awaken the colonists from their golden visions, Smith commenced the exploration of Chesapeake Bay, with a hope of

communicating with the Pacific, and thence to India. Many difficulties were experienced from the savages; and the adventurers were about returning when they unexpectedly discovered the Potomac river, the prospect of which once more revived their hopes. They ascended it to the Falls, above the site of Georgetown, entered the Rappahannock, and explored it to a considerable distance. Smith subsequently explored the Susquehannah until stopped by cataracts.

On his return Captain Smith was elected president, but was soon interrupted in the exercise of his duties by the arrival of Newport with about seventy emigrants, two of whom were females. This led to another futile expedition for the discovery of a passage to the South Sea, undertaken in conformity with a desire of the London Company, which having expended more than £2000 on the colony, were now anxious for something like reimbursement. A cargo, consisting principally of timber, with some tar, glass, and ashes, was sent to England, although its value little accorded with expectation.

Having despatched the vessel, Smith applied himself to the procuring of food. He also contrived a plan for seizing Powhatan; but this was revealed to the monarch, who made Smith himself prisoner. He was a second time saved, only through the intercession of Pocahontas; but the feelings of the Indians were completely estranged from their white neighbours.

Meanwhile the exertions of the patentees, and the general enthusiasm kindled throughout the nation, enabled the company to equip an expedition of nine vessels and five hundred emigrants. Many distinguished individuals were ready to embark their fortunes in this enterprise; and, with the consent of the old members, the company was remodelled on a larger scale and under a new charter. The territory was augmented from a hundred miles of coast to four hundred.

Lord Delaware, distinguished by his talents and virtues, was named governor for life; and, as he could not depart immediately, Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Summers were to rule in the mean time. The vessels set sail on the 15th of May, 1609, and seven arrived on the 11th of August, at Jamestown; but unfortunately they had encountered a violent storm, in which two, having on board Gates and Summers, were separated and thrown upon the Bermudas. In their absence, Smith justly claimed the rule; but many of the new comers, being bankrupts, spendthrifts, or others



POCAHONTAS RESCUING CAPTAIN SMITH.

sent abroad for misconduct at home, were indisposed to obey him. For some time, total anarchy reigned ; but its evils at length became so great, that he was entreated to resume the government. He exerted himself to settle the emigrants advantageously, of whom two parties, a hundred and twenty each, were settled at Nansemond, and at the Falls of James River. Both, however, mismanaged their affairs, quarrelled with the Indians, and lost a number of their men ; while they rejected all his efforts to remedy these disorders. In returning from the latter place, a bag of gunpowder burst and severely mangled his person, so that he reached home in extreme torture. Here he was told that plots were forming against his life. Unable, in his debilitated state, to struggle against so many difficulties, he returned

to England, quitting for ever the colony which had been so much indebted to him. He received at home neither honours nor rewards. The company, prepossessed by his numerous enemies, complained that he had brought no wealth into their coffers, and had acted severely towards the Indians. Posterity has done him justice, perhaps somewhat beyond his merits. His bold and active spirit, with sound practical judgment, eminently qualified him for the station; though, being rather hot and uncompromising in his temper, he excited bitter enmities. A conciliatory disposition and persuasive powers were, in such a situation, almost indispensable to render his exertions effective. His conduct towards the Indians was in general culpable, and, by the hostility which it created, neutralized in a great measure his eminent services.

His eulogium, however, was found in the state of the colony after his departure. Only about thirty or forty acres were cultivated; the ships had brought grain in limited quantity, and much spoiled during the unfortunate voyage. The Indians, no longer overawed by the late president, not only refused supplies, but killed many settlers. Thus there ensued a dreadful famine, long fearfully remembered under the name of the "Starving Time." Many were impelled to the horrid resource of devouring the bodies of the dead; nay, there are dark imputations of murder committed under this fearful impulse. Vessels sent along the rivers were either sunk or the crews beaten by the savages. Virginia seemed a devoted soil. Of the flourishing colony of five hundred persons, there remained only sixty "most miserable and poor creatures." After a large expenditure and successive arrivals of emigrants, it had returned almost into its original insignificance.

In May, Gates and Summers arrived from the Bermudas. Their scanty stock afforded a few days' subsistence to the settlers, beyond which appeared no prospect but that of famine. In this extremity, the colonists determined to sail for Newfoundland, and embarking, (June 6,) were steering down the bay, where they met with the long-boat of Lord Delaware, who had just arrived with a reinforcement and large supplies, to take command. This opportune occurrence restored satisfaction, and the wise and paternal character of Lord Delaware's administration for a time gave prosperity to the settlement. But this excellent nobleman was soon after taken ill, and obliged to return to England. He left Percy in command, who succeeded by Sir Thomas Dale. He continued in office until



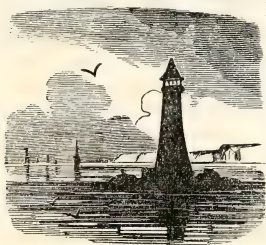
CAPTURE OF POCAHONTAS.

the arrival of Sir Thomas Gates with six ships, three hundred emigrants, and a hundred cattle.

With some of the new comers, Dale now undertook a voyage up the river, and founded a settlement which he named Henrico in honour of the Prince of Wales. A romantic and pleasing event of this expedition may be considered the termination of the long hostility with the native tribes. An enterprising naval officer named Argall contrived to inveigle on board his vessel the Princess Pocahontas, and, notwithstanding her tears and entreaties, carried her to Jamestown. She was well treated, but the English refused to release her, except for an exorbitant ransom. Powhatan, with an independence of soul which showed true greatness, refused to listen to any terms while his favourite child was a captive. The unfortunate breach seemed hourly widening. At this crisis, Mr. John Rolfe, a respectable young man, was smitten with her dignified demeanour, and found no difficulty in gaining her affections. Their marriage was a source of exultation to the colonists, and made Powhatan their firm friend ever afterward. The youthful bride became

a believer in the truths of Christianity, and was baptized under the name of Rebecca, to which the English prefixed Lady. She was taken to England, introduced to the royal family, and, for some time, became the object of universal attention. In 1716, she went to embark at Gravesend; but she was never again to behold her native shore. Sudden illness carried her off in a few days. She left a son in the colony, whose offspring is now numerous, and the descent from whom is the boast of many Virginia families. It is worthy of note, however, that, notwithstanding the popularity of this marriage, and the scarcity of females in the settlement, Rolfe's example was never followed.

Gates and Dale abolished the system of community labour, and gave to each family a piece of ground for its own cultivation. This revived industry, and every thing began to assume a new aspect. They soon discovered tobacco; and, in one year, this apparently nauseous weed did more to enrich the company and the colony itself, than did all the fancied mines of gold and marts of commerce during the whole period that Virginia was a colony.



IN 1616, Sir T. Dale died, and was succeeded by Sir George Yeardley as deputy. Lord Delaware also died, in sailing for Jamestown. The government then devolved upon Argall, a brave and successful naval commander, but of a temper too haughty and overbearing. He became so unpopular that the company were obliged to super-

sede him, and the regulation of affairs again devolved on Yeardley. The oppression of Argall led to the petitioning for a new constitution, which, after long delay, the company granted. This instrument was so framed as to secure the colonists in a great measure against any proceeding contrary to their views. The House of Assembly was to consist of the governor, a council appointed by the corporation at home, and two representatives from each borough. As this meeting amounted to twenty-one, while the delegates from eleven boroughs were twenty-two, the company had only to gain one of the latter in order to have the full dictation of every measure. Various other privileges were granted, all securing more or less the rights of the colonists. The consequences were soon apparent



THE CHRISTIAN INDIAN DISCLOSING THE INTENDED MASSACRE

Their number continually increased, the area of the settlement was extended, and the arrival of a considerable number of females gave a stability, an appearance of home to the town, which it had not yet enjoyed.

During this period of prosperity, a storm was brooding over the colony in a quarter little suspected. We have seen the beneficial effects of Rolfe's marriage, in its reconciliation of the Indians. So perfect had this become, that the two races seemed blended into one, the Indians entering at pleasure into the houses of the planters, borrowing their arms and materials, and frequently residing with them for some days. But, in reality, a fearful change had taken place, and the red men had determined on the utter extinction of the colony. Powhatan was dead; and his son Opecancanough, under apparent friendship, concealed the most deadly hatred. All the causes of this alteration it is impossible to ascertain; but, no doubt, a part was owing to the conduct of the settlers, and the fears excited by their rapid increase.

The Indians appointed a day in which a general massacre of the whites was to be perpetrated. The secret was kept with the profound dissimulation which characterizes savage vengeance; and, several days before, Opecancanough had declared that the heavens



THE GREAT MASSACRE.

would fall before he would alter his affection for the English. To the last moment, his subjects continued visiting, conversing, and holding the most friendly intercourse with those whom they were about to slay.

One exception to this general hatred saved the colony. A gentleman, named Pace, had an Indian domestic, whom he had not only treated with peculiar kindness, but had converted to the Christian religion. Being told, late at night, to murder his master next day, he rose from his bed and disclosed the plot. Pace immediately arose, procured a boat, and, crossing to Jamestown, revealed the conspiracy. The notice was too short, however, to warn all the remote settlements, and on these the storm fell in full fury. Mingling as usual with the settlers, they succeeded in completely surprising them, and, with the implements of husbandry, struck them dead before they were conscious of danger. The dreadful work continued until three hundred and forty-seven men, women, and children were massacred, and all the colony was filled with alarm. This event, known as the Great Massacre, occurred April 1, 1622. It was followed by a war of extermination against the Indians, which resulted in the extinction or emigration of nearly all the tribes in the vicinity of Jamestown.

In addition to this misfortune, the company were soon called to breast another storm more potent than Indian hatred. This was the king's opposition. Being one of the vainest and most arbitrary sovereigns that ever sat on the English throne, James could not look with apathy upon the increasing prosperity of a company whose views of government and royal prerogative were far more republican than his own. The dispute first commenced about the appointment of officers—James claiming this right for himself. He then attempted to monopolize the tobacco trade. The controversy continued until 1624, when the company was dissolved, and Virginia made a royal government.



THE TOBACCO PLANT



JAMES I.

CHAPTER XV.

VIRGINIA TILL THE PEACE OF 1763.



HE arbitrary schemes of King James were interrupted by his death, which occurred April 6, 1625. His successor, Charles I., entertained similar ideas regarding his capacity for government, but was more fickle in disposition. Although he did not interfere with the colonial constitution, yet he endeavoured to monopolize the tobacco trade, and was prevented from doing so only by an earnest remonstrance from the governor, council, and burgesses. On the death of Yeardley, in 1627, West and Pott were successively elected by the council.



ARREST OF HARVEY.

John Harvey was appointed by Charles in 1629, but he became so unpopular as to be sent to England, in 1636, loaded with charges. A trial resulted in his triumphant acquittal. He was then reinstated, and after continuing the administration for two years, was succeeded by Sir Francis Wyatt. After another period of two years, the government devolved (February, 1642) on Sir William Berkeley. His accession gave universal satisfaction; and, although bigotted with regard to religion and education, he seems to have been the most popular of any of the Virginian governors.

Ever since the dreadful massacre of 1622, a vindictive warfare had been waged against the Indians, chiefly by predatory incursions into their territory; and in the year 1643, the Assembly voted that no terms of peace with them should be entertained. That unfortunate people, driven to despair, again entered into a general confederacy, hoping, by a sudden attack, to cut off the hated race who had seized their lands. This step could not now be reproached with treachery, nor could suspicion be lulled by professions of friendship; yet through their habits of deep dissimulation, they, in some degree, effected a surprise. About three hundred colonists were killed; but as soon as the main body were aroused, the savage assailants were completely defeated, pursued into their own country, and Opecanough, their king, taken prisoner. Though well treated, he felt indignant at the multitudes who were allowed to come into his prison, and satisfy their curiosity by viewing his person; assuring Berkeley, that, had fortune reversed their situation, he would not have meanly exhibited his captive as a show. A brutal soldier pur-



CHARLES I.

an end to his life by shooting him in the back ; and the Indians were now so far overawed, that the governor, in 1646, could impose a treaty, including an extensive cession of territory.

This unpropitious affair was succeeded by a period of unusual tranquillity, during which the colony increased greatly. A writer, in 1649, estimates the population at about fifteen thousand, and states that there were twenty thousand head of cattle, three thousand sheep, five thousand goats, hogs and poultry innumerable, with about two hundred horses and mares of an excellent breed. Wheat was raised for subsistence in considerable quantities, but tobacco was the staple for sale. The plantations reached about a hundred miles along the river, having upon it fronts of varying extent, but each stretching backward about two thousand yards.

In the contest between Charles and the Republicans, Virginia took part with the crown ; and on the death of the monarch, boldly

declared for his exiled son. Disputes with the Long Parliament followed, but were interrupted by the dissolution of that body. Finally, however, the Virginians obtained a complete amnesty; and the Protector even extended to them several important privileges. The republic was, however, always unpopular; and, after the expulsion of Richard, Cromwell's son, the Virginians gladly returned to their old allegiance.

As the colonists had been among the most strenuous supporters of the crown, it was natural to suppose that they would receive from it a full recognition of their loyalty, and confirmation of all former rights. In this they were disappointed. The Church of England was exclusively established, the right of suffrage abridged, general education discouraged, commerce limited to the mother country, and several odious monopolies established.

An internal cause still more cruelly interrupted the success of the colony. The Indians, once so hostile, had for a long time been overawed or conciliated; but the Susquehannas, a singularly fierce tribe, having been driven from the north by the Five Nations, began to commit depredations upon the frontiers. The colonists on the border, possessing, doubtless, much of the lawless character of back-settlers, violently retaliated. Six chiefs, sent by the Indians to treat for peace, were seized and put to death; and the just indignation expressed by Berkeley at this outrage gave great offence. After war had raged some time, that people again made pacific overtures, but without success. The governor, however, endeavoured to second their object, and to mitigate the ferocious spirit which now animated the colonists. These humane efforts were adverse to their present disposition, and lost to him that popularity which he had so long enjoyed, while his views and even his errors were in unison with theirs. The consequences soon proved disastrous.

Nathaniel Bacon, of a respectable family in Suffolk, carried out the unusual fortune of £1800, and, possessing an uncommon share of address, eloquence, and intelligence, acquired great influence and a seat in the council. Having formed a border plantation on the upper part of James River, he found the war raging with the Indians, who carried it on with their usual cruelties. Ill-informed perhaps of the wrongs by which they had been impelled, he sympathized with the sufferings of his countrymen, and entertained an eager desire for revenge. A farm of his own being attacked, and the servant killed, he took up arms without the knowledge of



SIGNING OF BACON'S COMMISSION

Berkeley, and rallying around him all inspired by similar sentiments, was soon at the head of five hundred men. The governor announced this armament as rebellious, and issued a mandate to disperse, which was partly obeyed. His attention was distracted, however, by a rising of the popular party in the lower province, to resist the aristocratic ascendant. The two interests became united; and the government, unable to resist, were obliged to agree that the Assembly, having now sat an exorbitant time, should be dissolved, and a new one elected. The result was favourable to the popular side; universal suffrage was restored; all arbitrary taxation was abolished; and various abuses suppressed, though without any vindictive proceedings against their authors. Bacon had at first been made prisoner; but on so strong a manifestation of the Assembly's will, he was set at liberty, and even promised a commission; but this was ultimately refused. He then secretly withdrew, and assembled five or six hundred men, with whom he became complete master of the seat of government. Sir William strenuously resisted; and, with the boldness of an old cavalier, bared his breast to his adversary, saying, "A fair mark—shoot!" Bacon declared they did not wish to hurt a hair of his head, but only desired a commission to save their lives from the Indians. The authority was granted to him, and he marched to the frontier.

As soon, however, as the immediate pressure was removed, the governor, rashly as it would seem, published a proclamation, reversing all the proceedings of the Assembly, and again declaring Bacon a traitor. This step immediately kindled a civil war. That daring chief marched back towards Jamestown, and was joined by numerous adherents of the popular class. The property of the royalists was confiscated, their wives seized, and carried along with the troops as hostages; and these violences being retaliated, wide devastation was spread over the country. Berkeley, meantime, had assembled in the capital his friends, with some seamen landed from vessels in the harbour. Here, however, they were soon besieged, and, being repulsed in a sally, found themselves no match for the hardy borderers. It was necessary to evacuate the town during the night, and withdraw his entire force to the eastern shore, leaving the whole west in possession of the insurgents.



ACON now acted entirely as ruler of Virginia, and declaring the governor to have abdicated, summoned an assembly in his own name. It was determined to resist any attempts from the mother-country to restore Berkeley to power, and, indeed, the resolution was almost fixed to throw off its yoke altogether. As Jamestown might afford a position for establishing an English force, the violent measure was adopted of devoting it to the flames. This was executed with such ruthless determination, that the fires being kindled in the night, there remained in the morning scarcely a vestige of that original capital, which has never again reared its head. Nothing now appeared to remain but to cross the river and drive before them the discouraged remnant of Berkeley's forces. Suddenly, however, the leader sickened, and, after a short illness, died; a catastrophe that put an end to the insurrection, which, after all, had not any deep root among the nation. Its temporary success seems to have been owing to the union of the border settlers with the popular faction; but the latter, forming still a decided minority, could not permanently support it. Several of the leaders attempted to make a stand, but were successively reduced and taken by Beverley, an active royalist chief. The governor, whose feelings seem throughout the whole transaction to have been greatly excited, acted now with excessive rigour. Twenty persons were hanged, and it is supposed a greater number would have endured the same punishment, had not the Assembly presented ar

address, entreating "that he would spill no more blood." One of the deputies said, "had we let him alone, he would have hanged half the country." Charles II., whose disposition was not cruel, exclaimed, "the old fool has taken away more lives than I for the murder of my father," and issued a proclamation censuring his conduct as derogatory to his clemency. Sir William was recalled, and his place temporarily supplied by Colonel Jeffereys, who, with two others, constituted a commission of inquiry. They seem to have made it very searching, with even a friendly disposition towards the people. The different counties were invited to produce statements of grievances, and the records of the Assembly were forced from their clerk. A report was drawn up, in which, while the conduct of the insurgents was strongly condemned, that of the government and several members of the council was also censured. These reflections against Berkeley are supposed to have hastened his death, which took place before he had an interview with the king. The Assembly passed a vote, declaring that he had been an excellent governor, and recommended a grant to Lady Berkeley of £300. Jeffereys, during his short administration, put an end to the Indian war. After the death of Charles I., some royalist noblemen obtained a grant of the territory between the Potomac and Rappahannock, known as the North Neck, for the purpose of affording a refuge to their adherents. This right was afterwards sold to Lords Culpepper and Arlington. The colonists remonstrated against it, as a violation of their charter; but Charles confirmed it by the appointing of Culpepper governor for life. He was avaricious and despotic; and the office finally reverted to the crown. The colony remained in rather an unsettled state until 1692, when its management was conferred on Sir Edmund Andros. He seems to have conducted himself, during the six years of his administration, with prudence and ability. His successor, Nicholson, having formed a scheme of uniting the settlements into a union for mutual defence, which displeased the Assembly, was deposed, and the government given to the Earl of Orkney, who held it as a sinecure thirty-six years.

Virginia, from this period till the peace of 1763, enjoyed an almost uninterrupted prosperity. She was engaged in military operations against the French and their Indian allies; but as these were common to the whole range of states, we prefer to make them, with some other matters, the subject of a general chapter.



.CECIL CALVERT THE SECOND LORD BALTIMORE.

CHAPTER XVI.

MARYLAND.



IRGINIA, under the second charter, was extended so as to embrace in its area the whole of the present state of Maryland. In the territory around Chesapeake Bay a valuable trade was carried on with the Indians, principally by William Clayborne, a surveyor of the Virginia Company, and member of the council. Under direct license from the crown, he built a number of establishments on the bay, the proceeds of which were highly beneficial to the colony.

This profitable trade was interrupted by the grant of a charter to Sir George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, for the land extending from the Potomac to the fortieth degree of north latitude, to be called Maryland, in honour of the queen. Sir George, having died before the grant was fully made out, was succeeded by his son Cecil, who immediately devoted all his exertions for the good of the future

colony. The expenses from his own funds amounted to £20,000. and an equal sum was raised among his friends. Warned by Virginian disasters, he avoided, from the first, all chimerical projects, and placed his establishment entirely on an agricultural basis. Every one who carried out five persons, male or female, paying their expenses, (about £20,) was to receive a thousand acres. Those defraying their own charges got a hundred acres for themselves, and the same for every adult member of their family; for children under six years, fifty acres. The rent was two shillings for each one hundred acres.

In November, 1633, Leonard Calvert set sail with the first emigrants, consisting of about two hundred persons, including a son of Sir Thomas Gerard, one of Sir Thomas Wiseman, and two of Lady Wintour. In February, he touched at Point Comfort, in Virginia, where his arrival was by no means acceptable; nevertheless, Sir John Harvey, in obedience to the express orders of Charles, gave him a courteous reception. Early in March, he entered the Potomac, to the Indians on the shores of which the sight of so large a vessel was quite new, and caused the utmost astonishment. The report was, that a canoe was approaching as big as an island, with men standing in it as thick as trees in a forest; and they thought with amazement how enormous must have been the trunk out of which it had been hollowed. A piece of ordnance, resounding for the first time on the shores of this mighty river, caused the whole country to tremble. The intercourse, however, appears to have been judiciously conducted, and was, on the whole, very amicable. Calvert sailed up to Piscataqua, an Indian settlement nearly opposite the present site of Mount Vernon, where the chief received him with kindness, saying, "he would not bid him go, neither would he bid him stay; he might use his own discretion." On reflection, he considered the place too far up the river, and, therefore, the vessel was moved down to a tributary named then St. Georges, now St. Mary's. Ascending it four leagues, he came to a considerable Indian town, named Yoacomoco; and, being hospitably received, as well as pleased with the situation, he determined to fix his colony there. The werowanne accepted an invitation on board, and Sir John Harvey having just arrived from Virginia, the chief was led down to the cabin, and seated at dinner between the two governors. An alarm having spread among the people on shore, that he was detained as a prisoner, they made the banks echo with shouts of alarm; the Indian attendants durst not go to them, but when he



SETTLEMENT OF ST. MARY'S.

himself appeared on deck, they were satisfied. He became so much attached to the English, as to declare, that if they should kill him, he would not wish his death avenged, being sure that he must have deserved his fate.

Amid these dispositions, it was not difficult to negotiate the formation of a settlement. For hatchets, hoes, knives, cloth, and other articles of probably very small original cost, the strangers not only obtained a large tract of land, but were allowed by the inhabitants to occupy immediately one half of their village, with the corn growing adjacent to it, and, at the end of harvest, were to receive the whole. Thus the English were at once comfortably established, without those severe hardships which usually attend an infant settlement.

The colony thus commenced enjoyed privileges to which Virginia had been a stranger. Her charter secured the great privilege of perfect freedom of opinion in religious matters, the right of suffrage, the appointment of officers by the crown, and a permanent exemption from all royal taxation.



IN 1635, the Assembly met at St. Mary's but the record of their proceedings is now lost. Immediately after, Clayborne refused to submit to Calvert's government, and at length appeared in arms to maintain the right of possession in his territory. A skirmish occurred in May, in which a few on each side were killed, and Clayborne's party taken prisoners. Their leader fled to Virginia, and, on being demanded by the Maryland Assembly, was sent to England for trial. The Assembly seized his lands and declared him a traitor. Clayborne appealed to the crown, but, after a full hearing, the case was decided against him, and his estates reverted to Lord Baltimore.

These difficulties were scarcely suppressed, when others, little less formidable, occurred with the Indians. These increased to such an alarming extent, that, in 1642, all the neighbouring tribes were arrayed against the colony. The disgusting scenes attendant on savage warfare continued until 1644, when they were happily terminated by a treaty, the conditions of which, and some acts of Assembly immediately following, seem to prove that the evil had arisen entirely from the interested proceedings of individuals. The prohibition of kidnapping the Indians, and of selling arms to them, show the existence of these culpable practices. This peace was of long duration, and the Maryland government seems, on the whole, to have acted more laudably towards the red men than any other, except that of Penn.

In 1645, Clayborne returned to Maryland, raised a rebellion, and drove the governor into Virginia. A period of disorder ensued until the summer of 1646, when the government was restored. A season of prosperity followed until 1650, when still further security was given to political freedom, by dividing the Assembly into two houses, composed of the governor and council in one, and the burgesses elected by the people in the other.

The suppression of royalty in England seems to have acted unfavourably to Maryland. The parliament sent a number of commissioners to reduce the territory to obedience; among these was Clayborne. Governor Stone was twice removed. The great religious sects organized themselves into parties, and a proscription was

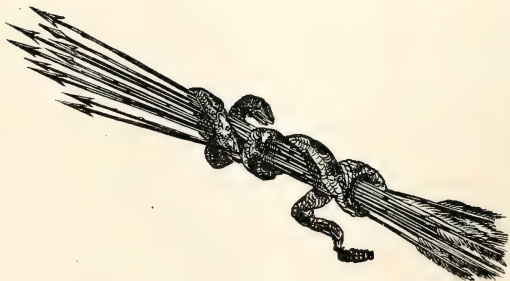


WILLIAM III.

commenced against the Catholics. The governor raised an armed force, seized the colonial archives, and marched against his opponents; but, in a battle fought near the site of Annapolis, his party were dispersed and himself taken prisoner. Four of his men were executed. The disturbances continued until 1660, when the upper house of the legislature was dissolved, and the entire management of affairs devolved upon the popular branch. This continued until the Restoration of Charles II., when the old order of administration was restored, the proprietor reinstated, and peace secured by a general amnesty for all offences. Emigration was renewed with considerable activity, especially among the labouring classes, who, under indentures for a term of years, had the expenses of their voyage defrayed.

When the Revolution occurred in England, the Protestants of Maryland, inspired with new courage, rose in arms, overturned the government, and substituted a provisional one. King William, who doubtless had an interest in favour of the insurgents, gave his entire sanction to their proceedings and took the government into his own hands. After a short tenure by Andros, it was directed during six

years by Nicholson, who, on the whole, gave satisfaction. The Protestants considered their wrongs as redressed, nor do we hear of any complaints from the opposite party. Under the successive administrations of Blackeston, Seymour, Corbet, and Hunt, the province continued tranquil and contented. In 1716, the inheritance having fallen to Charles, Lord Baltimore, who professed the Protestant religion, George I. was induced to restore his patent, which continued till the Revolution in the hands of the family. It was first ruled by B. Leonard Calvert, a relation of the proprietor, who was succeeded in 1732 by Samuel Ogle. The colony continuing to flourish, received a large accession of Presbyterians from the north of Ireland, who, after settling in Pennsylvania, sold their possessions and removed to this more favourable climate.





JOHN WINTHROP.

CHAPTER XVII.

MASSACHUSETTS.

IN 1606, Sir George Popham was sent from England, by the Plymouth Company, with a hundred men, to form a colony in America. He chose a site on the Kennebec ; and, with forty-five of his company, commenced a settlement, under the name of St. George. During the winter, they endured great sufferings from cold and famine ; their president died, and the store-house was consumed by fire. The settlement was consequently abandoned in the following year. But for a series of unforeseen calamities, this attempt would probably have given New England a priority, in point of age, to Virginia.

No further attempt was made at colonization in this quarter, until 1614, when Captain John Smith visited it in two ships, established a lucrative trade with the Indians, and explored the interior, together with the coast from Cape Cod to the Penobscot. He named t

country New England, and prepared a map of it, which is still extant, and is strikingly correct in all its outlines.

On his return, he succeeded in rousing a spirit of enterprise, which, for a while, promised the most flattering results. Smith sailed the following year, under the auspices of the Plymouth Company, but was driven back by storms. On a second attempt, his crew mutinied, and, while engaged in quelling this new danger, his ship was seized by French pirates, and he escaped only by means of an open boat. On his return to England, he was appointed life admiral of the colony, and obtained a charter (1620) for settling all lands between the fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude.

Meanwhile, influences were in operation which, although apparently insignificant, were to outstrip royal patents in the march of colonization, and found a colony on the wild shores of New England, whose potency was to be realized throughout America. The Puritans, driven from their own country by religious intolerance, had settled in Holland, in 1608, and, for eleven years, lived in happiness under their pastor, John Robinson. Unable, however, to feel at home, in a country whose laws, customs, and language were entirely different from their own, these men obtained a grant of land from the London Company, and permission to emigrate. The king, however, remained hostile, and want of funds obliged them to form a partnership, on very disadvantageous terms, with some English merchants. They were thus enabled to purchase the vessels *Speedwell* (sixty tons) and *Mayflower* (a hundred and eighty-tons), the former of which sailed to Delfthaven, to take on board the brethren. The departure was a solemn and impressive scene. Kneeling on the strand, in presence of his noble-hearted followers, so soon to dare the horrors of a savage wilderness, and surrounded by thousands of spectators, the venerable Robinson dedicated their cause to God, and gave them his parting blessing. Many a tear was shed as companions, endeared by years of persecution, adversity, and affliction, parted, with but little prospect of ever again uniting. The two vessels joined at Southampton, and thence proceeded on their great western voyage; but, before they reached the Land's End, the *Speedwell* was obliged to put back to Dartmouth for repairs. After a second trial the captain again pronounced her unfit for the voyage, and sailed for Plymouth. These disasters and alarms, though involving the loss of much precious time, "winnowed their number of the cowardly and the lukewarm;" and they finally set sail in one



LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

vessel, (September 16, 1620,) numbering a hundred and two persons.

They had a tempestuous voyage, and though their destination was the mouth of the Hudson, they arrived, on the 19th of November in view of a great promontory, which proved to be Cape Cod. The captain, it has been alleged, had received a bribe from the Dutch to avoid a place where they projected a settlement. Of this, however the adventurers being ignorant, were comforted by the view of a goodly land, wooded to the water's edge. Whales so abounded, that had the crew possessed means and instruments, which, to their great regret, were wanting, they might have procured £4000 worth of oil. They sailed on toward their destination, but being driven back by contrary winds, determined to go ashore. Previously, however, they sought to obviate the danger of discord by a mutual agreement, in the name of God, to combine into a body politic; framing and duly observing laws for the general good.

They landed on the 21st, but being informed that more commodious spots might be found to the north-west, in the interior of the great Bay of Massachusetts, they determined that a select party should proceed in the shallop in search of them. The boat, however, was in such disrepair that it could not sail till the end of two or three weeks; sixteen of them, therefore, resolved to make an excursion into the interior. They met no natives, but found on a hill, half-buried in the ground, several baskets filled with ears of corn

part of which they carried away, meaning to satisfy the owners on the first opportunity, which unluckily never occurred. They saw many geese and ducks, but were unable to reach them; and being exposed to severe cold, hastily returned. Soon after, they started for the same spot, named Cornhill, in the neighbourhood of which they collected ten bushels of grain, esteemed a providential supply. They lighted upon a village without inhabitants; but the houses were neatly constructed of young saplings bent at top, as in an arbour, and covered without and within with fine mats. Eagles' claws, deer's feet, and harts' horns, were stuck into them as charms and ornaments. They then regained their boat, and sailed round to the ship. Some of their number urged that they should remain at least during the winter in this creek, where corn and fish could be procured, while many were disabled by sickness for further removal. The majority, however, observed that water was scarce, and the anchorage for ships too distant; that they had every chance of finding a better situation, and to fix here and then remove would be doubling their labour. On the 16th of December, therefore, the shallop being at length ready, a chosen party set sail. After proceeding six or seven leagues, they reached a bay forming a good harbour, but without a stream falling into it. Seeing some Indian wigwams, they followed, but could not reach the people, and found only a large burying-place. They returned to sleep at the landing-place, but at midnight were awakened by "a great and hideous cry," which, they flattered themselves, proceeded only from wolves or foxes. Next morning, just after prayers, the sound was heard with redoubled violence, and was most dreadful. A straggler rushed in, crying, "they are men—Indians." Though the party ran to their arms, before they could be mustered, the arrows were flying thick among them. A brisk fire checked the assailants; but the chief, shooting from a tree, stood three discharges, till at the fourth he screamed out and ran, followed by his men. They were reckoned at thirty or forty, and numerous arrows were picked up; but, providentially, not one Englishman was hurt.

They sailed fifteen leagues farther, and, on the 19th, reached a harbour that had been strongly recommended. The weather was dark and stormy, and the entrance encumbered with rocks; yet they fortunately ran in on a fine sandy beach. This being Saturday, they did not land till Monday the 21st, when they were highly pleased, finding a commodious harbour, a land well wooded, vines.



DEATH OF GOVERNOR CARVER.

cherries, and berries, lately planted, and a hill cleared for corn. There was no navigable stream, but several brooks of fresh water fell into the sea. They advanced seven or eight miles into the country without seeing any Indians.

They now finally fixed upon this spot, to which, on the 29th, the vessel was brought round; and they named it New Plymouth, to commemorate hospitalities received at home. The erection of houses, however, was a hard task, amid severe weather, short days, and very frequent storms. By distributing the unmarried among the several families, they reduced the buildings wanted to nineteen, and by the 20th of January, had completed one, twenty feet square, for public meetings. The exposure, however, and wading through the water in such inclement weather, brought on severe illness, to which Carver, a governor highly esteemed, and many others, fell victims. But on the 13th of March, a south wind sprung up; the weather became mild; the birds sung in the woods most pleasantly; the invalids quickly recovered; and many of them lived to a good old age.

In the autumn of 1621, the merchants sent out another vessel with thirty-five settlers; but misled by "prodigal reports of plenty sent home by certain colonists, they supplied no provisions; nay



THE TREATY WITH MASSASSOIT

the crew required to be provided with a portion for their return voyage. The consequence was, that in the course of the winter, the colonists were reduced to a half allowance of corn daily, then to five kernels a piece; lastly, to entire want. Equally destitute of live-stock, they depended wholly on wild animals. Till May, 1622, fowls abounded; but there remained then merely fish, which they had not nets to catch; and it was only by feeding on the shell species, collected among the rocks, that they were preserved from absolute starvation.

Hitherto but few Indians had been seen; but in the latter end of March, a sachem, named Samoset, entered the village and exclaimed in broken English, "Welcome, Englishmen!" This was followed by a treaty with King Massassoit, which secured peace with his tribes for nearly fifty years. Similar treaties were concluded with other tribes. Canonicus, however, sachem of the Narragansetts



SETTLEMENT OF BOSTON.

sent to Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows in a rattlesnake's skin ; but the intrepid officer coolly stuffed the skin with powder and ball, and returned it. This so frightened the Indian that he refused to touch it, and after being circulated among other tribes with similar effects, it was returned to Plymouth.

In 1622, a merchant of London, named Weston, with sixty followers, commenced a settlement at Weymouth. Idleness soon reduced them to poverty, and their encroachments on the Indians were so unscrupulous that the latter determined on the utter destruction of their white neighbours. The plot was revealed by Massassoit. Captain Standish, with eight men, being sent to support the new settlement, succeeded in killing the Indian chief with several of his men, and breaking up the conspiracy.

In 1626, the colony purchased the rights of the London merchants, and distributed the property among the emigrants. Unfortunately, however, Robinson and his friends remaining in Holland, were unable to obtain transportation in consequence of opposition in England.

In 1624, Mr. White, a Puritan minister, formed a settlement at Cape Ann, which remained two years. In 1624, Salem was settled



BANISHMENT OF ROGER WILLIAMS.

by John Endicott, under the auspices of the "Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay, in New England." Charlestown was founded next year. The settlement was denominated the Massachusetts Bay Colony, and its members were greatly strengthened in 1630, when the celebrated John Winthrop arrived with three hundred pious families. Winthrop was chosen governor of the whole colony, and established his residence where Boston now stands. Misfortunes, however, still thickened around them; sickness and a severe climate made fearful inroads into their numbers. and, before December, two hundred died. But the survivors were not discouraged. They had found a home in the wilderness, where the asperities of nature were less formidable than the persecutions of man; and the hardships inseparable from their situation could not shake their determined minds.

In 1631, a law was passed limiting the rights of citizenship to members of church, and another, making the offices of governor



SIR HARRY VANE.

deputy-governor, and assistants, elective by the people. The whole form of government was changed, in 1634, from a pure democracy to a representative one. The former statute, somewhat intolerable in itself, was soon followed by proceedings still more arbitrary. A clergyman, named Roger Williams, having been driven from his native country by English bigotry, sought a home among the Puritans, and became pastor of Salem. Here he proclaimed, among other things, perfect freedom of conscience in religious matters, denied the authority of the king to enforce an oath of allegiance, or to deprive the Indians of their lands. Men like the Puritans could not regard such opinions without alarm; and Williams was soon arraigned for trial. Banishment from the colony followed, (1635,) and the fearless advocate of religious freedom became the father of Rhode Island.

At this time, the colony received an accession to their number of about three thousand emigrants, among whom were Hugh Peter and the famous Sir Harry Vane. At the age of twenty-five, the latter was chosen governor. This increase was followed by an emigration of a small company (October, 1635) to the valley of the

Connecticut. This was the origin of the state known at present by that name.

The difficulties with Roger Williams were scarcely terminated, when others of a still more serious character arose with the sect called Antinomians. These seem to have had their origin in the colony, out of the practice of debating religious topics during the meetings on the Sabbath. In opposition to these, a lady, named Mrs. Hutchinson, organized similar assemblies for her own sex, in which both old and new tenets were discussed with a freedom and popularity which soon roused the attention of the whole colony. But although the ministers and civil and ecclesiastical officers arrayed themselves against her, and condemned the new doctrines as heretical, yet her assemblies were constantly crowded to overflowing. The contagion spread through all classes of society, until at length political parties were based on the distinction between Antinomianism and the established creed. An election was held for governor, in which Vane was candidate of the Hutchinson party, and Winthrop of the Puritan. The latter was elected, and measures were immediately taken for the suppression of heresy. A judicial war followed, in which Mrs. Hutchinson and several of her followers were tried, condemned, and banished. She went to Rhode Island, and was cordially received by Roger Williams.

While these unhappy events were transpiring, a war occurred with the Pequod Indians, which terminated in the utter extinction of that warlike tribe. In this affair, the banished Williams displayed a true nobleness of soul, by using his influence successfully in breaking up a league between these savages and the Narragansetts, and inducing the latter to join the colonists.

In 1643, a union or confederacy was formed by the four colonies of Massachusetts, New Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut, with a view of protecting themselves against the Dutch and French colonists, and more especially against the Indians. The executive body consisted of two commissioners from each colony, whose only qualification was church membership. They had no right to interfere in the internal jurisdiction of any of the states, but could provide for the general defence, declare war, order levies of troops, and conclude peace. A singular feature was their entire inability to enforce their decrees, these being merely intimated by them to the confederate bodies with whom it rested to carry them into execution. The league consisting only of organized churches, excluded from its

members, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Maine. As this rendered the situation of Roger Williams somewhat precarious, he made two visits to England, and, through the influence of Vane, obtained a full charter for his little colony. This colonial confederation lasted forty years.

In 1644, Massachusetts passed a law by which the Council, when in session, should hold their sessions independent of the governor's presence. In 1652, its territory was extended by the accession of Maine. This province had been chartered and settled by Ferdinand Gorges, in 1639, but a variety of conflicting claims had produced a state of almost utter anarchy which finally forced the colonists to seek the protection of their flourishing neighbour.

But Massachusetts had not yet learned the secret of securing domestic tranquillity. A sect had arisen in England, the members of which, on account of some irregular bodily movements, had received the derisive title of Quakers. They seem to have proceeded to great extremes, rejecting all human learning and ordinances, and placing their whole dependency on the direct agency of the Spirit. Guided by supernatural impulses, they professed to be intrusted with messages and mandates to kings and cities, challenged the obedience of all, announced judgments and indicated the means of averting them. In executing such commissions, no regard was paid to human dignities, or to the rules and usages of society; hence, they were branded as mad, though their writings are generally in a sober and reasoning tone.

In 1656, a few of this sect arrived at Boston, but were sent back by the authorities in the same vessel by which they came. This did not prevent the arrival of others, and soon the colony became a scene of excitement and violence, little worthy the character of men whose political privileges had so often been endangered by ecclesiastical bigotry. Numbers were fined, whipped, imprisoned, banished, or executed. In 1658, a law was passed inflicting death on any Quaker who should revisit the colony after being banished. But so great was the number of those who aspired after the glories of martyrdom, that their sufferings, united with a uniform mildness of character and deportment, at length wrought a revolution in popular opinion. Wenlock Christian, sentenced to death for returning from banishment, was released. One law against them after another was abolished, until the Quakers ceased to be an object of legal persecution.



TRIAL OF WENLOCK CHRISTIAN.

In 1661, Whaley and Goffe, two of the judges who had voted for the death of Charles I., arrived at Boston and announced the restoration of royalty. This was unwelcome tidings; for during the Protectorate, Cromwell had extended much favour to Massachusetts, and even offered the colonists Jamaica as a climate more congenial than their own. Accordingly, when orders came from the new king for the arrest of Goffe and Whaley, they had been so carefully concealed by the colonists as nowhere to be found.

In 1664, an attempt was made to encroach on the colonial privileges by the appointment of commissioners to "hear and determine all complaints that might exist in New England, and take such measures as they might deem expedient for settling the peace and security of the country on a solid foundation." This occasioned much disturbance, and in Massachusetts and New Hampshire was strenuously and successfully resisted. They were at length recalled, and New England resumed its career of growth and prosperity.

In 1662, Philip, the younger son of Massassoit, succeeded his brother Alexander, as sachem, or king, of the Wampanoags. The treaty made by his father, forty years before, had never been violated; but a new era was at hand, whose terrible events were to form one of the most tragic pages of our colonial history. Philip



SCENE IN KING PHILIP'S WAR.

was a young chief, a perfect model of an Indian warrior, and possessing a grasp of design and intellect far superior to his race. For some reasons, never fully explained, he became incensed against the whites, and succeeded by his eloquence and address in uniting all the neighbouring tribes in a scheme for their entire annihilation.

The first intelligence of the conspiracy was obtained through a friendly Indian, who paid for his faithfulness by his life. Three Indians were convicted of this murder, one of whom acknowledged that he had been instigated to it by Philip. Unable longer to remain concealed, the chief determined upon the most sudden and vigorous measures; and sending the women and children to the Narragansetts, attacked the village of Swanzev, (July 4, 1675,) and killed several of the inhabitants. Roused by this daring deed, the colonists raised a considerable force, penetrated to Mount Hope, the Indian warrior's summer residence, and, on finding that he had fled, marched into the Narragansett country, and concluded a treaty with that tribe. On the 28th, a battle occurred at Pocasset (Tiverton) Swamp, in which the colonists were defeated, with the loss of sixteen. They then besieged the Indians for thirteen days, hoping to reduce them by starvation; but Philip managed to escape to Connecticut, where he was joined by the Nipmucks, near Brookfield.

The latter tribe fell upon a party of twenty men under Captains Wheeler and Hutchinson, (August 12,) killing nearly all of them. They then proceeded to Brookfield, which but for timely alarm from the fugitives, would have been completely surprised. It was besieged two days, partially fired, and various expedients adopted to force an entrance. The arrival of reinforcements for the garrison obliged the besiegers to retire.

On the 5th of September, a battle was fought at Deerfield, in which twenty-six Indians were killed and ten colonists. Six days after, the Indians burned the town. Hadley, south of Deerfield, was, on the same day, (the Sabbath,) attacked by a party of the enemy. A singular incident occurred here. While the inhabitants were collected in terror and confusion, an unknown person, of venerable aspect, suddenly appeared, and after restoring order, led them against the Indians, who were speedily dispersed. The leader then suddenly disappeared. Of course, the inhabitants considered him a special messenger from heaven ; but it was afterwards ascertained to have been William Goffe, the proscribed judge of Charles I.

On the 28th, a sanguinary conflict took place on a small stream south of Deerfield. Eighty young men, under Captain Lathrop, were surrounded by a thousand Indians, and, with but a few exceptions, massacred. During the action, Captain Mosey, with seventy men, arrived from Deerfield ; but, after a struggle of several hours, was driven back. The battle was finally terminated by a reinforcement of a hundred colonists, and sixty friendly Indians. From this occurrence, the stream of water was subsequently known as Bloody Brook. On the 15th of October, Springfield was attacked and burned by the savages ; but most of the inhabitants had, through timely warning, been enabled to escape. Hatfield was next assaulted, (October 29,) but without success. Immediately after, Philip induced the Narragansetts to join him, notwithstanding their treaty with the colonists.

Hitherto the colonists had acted in small bands, without any definite plan ; but the successes of their formidable enemy soon caused a union for mutual defence. Massachusetts, Plymouth Bay, and Connecticut, raised fifteen hundred men, under Governor Winslow, who, with a number of friendly Indians, proceeded against the Narragansetts. On the 28th of December, the forces of the three colonies were united at Petaquamscot, and marched through a deep snow, toward the enemy, who was encamped at about fifteen miles'



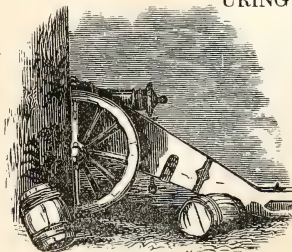
BURNING OF SPRINGFIELD.

distance, in a large swamp. The English arrived there at about one o'clock in the afternoon, and immediately marched forward in quest of the enemy's camp. The whole army entered the swamp, following the Indians as they retreated into their fortress. On attacking this, they were at first driven back; but, in a second attempt, they carried the fortification, fired the wigwams, and massacred all within reach. Numbers of women and children perished in the flames. The fugitives fled to a neighbouring swamp. Their loss has been estimated at a thousand, and that of the colonists two hundred and thirty. The Narragansett warriors afterward proceeded to the Nipmuck country.

Although this action was a severe blow to the enemy, yet Philip was by no means disheartened. By his influence, the more northern tribes were brought down upon the settlements, and the war became more general than ever. But the spirit of the colonists was fully aroused, and almost every attempt of the Indians was promptly and successfully resisted. Hunted from place to place, and disheartened by continual defeat, they began to come in by small parties and surrender. Philip was compelled to fly from the Mohawks, among whom he had taken refuge; and now with a large party he lurked near Mount Hope. Here, on the 2d of August, he was surprised by Captain Church, a hundred and thirty of his men killed, and his wife and son taken prisoners. He himself barely escaped. The wretched prince now sought to secrete himself in the depths of a

swamp, but was betrayed by a deserter belonging to his own tribe. When the colonists surrounded the place, (August 22,) he attempted to escape by flight, but was shot by a friendly Indian. His death broke up the confederacy, although some of the northern Indians continued hostile, until 1678.

In 1680 New Hampshire was separated from Massachusetts, and erected into a separate province—a measure which seems to have been unpopular with both colonies. Soon after, Charles II. declared the Massachusetts charter forfeited, in consequence of the stand taken by that province, in opposition to his commercial restrictions. This was followed by similar attacks on the neighbouring colonies; but in the midst of his arbitrary schemes the king died. His successor followed the same policy, deprived the provinces of their charters, and appointed Sir Edmond Andros royal governor of New England. This gentleman rendered himself so obnoxious by his arbitrary measures, as to receive the title of New England's tyrant; and when, in April, 1689, news reached Boston of the accession of the Prince of Orange, he was thrown into prison, with his officers, and subsequently sent under arrest to England. This was followed by a return to the charter governments.



URING King William's war, New York and New England united in an expedition against Canada. Massachusetts furnished the naval, and her sister province the land forces; but the enterprise failed, in consequence of the return of the latter troops, and the arrival of a large French army at Quebec. To pay the expenses of the expedition,

bills of credit were issued for the first time in America. In 1692, a royal government was established in New England, by which the Plymouth Bay colony was united to Massachusetts, and New Hampshire erected into a separate colony.

When Massachusetts, having nobly struggled through political difficulties, seemed approaching a tranquil state, a drama opened, whose scenes, though peculiarly painful, may yet afford a useful lesson to the student of history. The belief in witches—wicked beings endued with supernatural power by the great enemy of

mankind—was at one time general throughout Europe ; and gave way very slowly before the progress of light and civilization. James I. placed much of his learned pride in the skill with which he traced the signs of a witch ; such discoveries being always followed by the most inhuman persecutions against these unhappy persons. The Puritans and Presbyterians, however opposite in other matters, were not in this respect much wiser ; hence the New Englanders went out with this belief, which still prevailed among the most learned of their countrymen.



AMONG the first cases of this delusion was that of a daughter and niece of Mr. Paris, minister of Salem. These children were afflicted with a sense of choking, and as though pins were stuck into the skin, accompanied with inability to speak, and hysteric contortions of the limbs. Unable to suggest a remedy, the physicians at length declared their patients "under an evil hand." An Indian domestic, falling under suspicion, was immediately thrown into prison. Mr. Burroughs, a respectable clergyman, was executed, because he denied the existence of witches. Soon, no age, sex, or condition was spared, and the cases became so numerous that the prisons of Salem could no longer contain the crowds of suspected persons. The whole colony was filled with distress and fear. The principal people formed themselves into an association to meet "this dreadful assault from hell." They appointed a solemn fast, that the Lord might be induced "to rebuke Satan, and show light to his people in this day of darkness;" following which was a series of trials, that relentlessly denounced death on all found guilty of this fearful charge.

Nothing is more astonishing than the confessions of the suspected persons. They display a superstition and fanaticism, together with a state of society which requires the most undoubted evidence to be believed. The colony was reduced to a dreadful condition. Nineteen had suffered death ; eight more were under sentence ; one hundred and fifty were in prison, and fresh crowds were continually thrust in. Charges were brought against persons of the first consequence ; no man's character, property, nor life were for a moment secure ; and even those most active in prosecuting, learned, with horror, that their own spectres were beginning to walk abroad, commit

ting actions that would bring them to a fatal end. A feeling was at length aroused that matters had gone too far; and soon after an assembly of ministers, convened by the governor, went far toward discountenancing capital punishment on witches. Of fifty-six cases presented at the ensuing sessions, thirty were ignored by the grand jury, and but three of the remainder condemned. Immediately after, with the general concurrence of the people, the governor threw open the prison doors, and stopped all further proceedings.

Massachusetts, from this time until the Seven Years' War, enjoyed, like the other colonies, a course of prosperity, chequered only by some internal agitations. She took a very active part in the military operations of successive wars waged by the British against the French colonies and their Indian allies.



MEANWHILE the domestic affairs of the province ceased to exhibit those violent fluctuations which had hitherto distracted it. Lord Bellamont, who went out as governor in 1699, was extremely popular; and it was to the great regret of the people he was transferred to New York, after fourteen months' administration. He was succeeded by Dudley, who, on account of his peculiar opinions on government, seems to have been no great favourite. After twelve years he was succeeded by Colonel Shute.

In 1727, he was succeeded by Burnet, a very accomplished person, and who, at New York, had made himself extremely acceptable. Under him, however, the question of income came to a crisis. The Assembly, much mortified by having, under the charter of William, been deprived of the choice of a governor, endeavoured to keep him still under their influence by granting his salary only from year to year, and varying its amount according as he had given satisfaction. This arrangement was very disagreeable to him, and still more to the ministry at home, against whose power it was directly levelled. Burnet, relying on their support, pressed with great vehemence for a permanent salary; but it was strenuously resisted, and the controversy was suspended by his death in 1729. The cabinet then sent out Belcher, who had formerly acted as their agent, but with distinct instructions to insist on this point, which, it was hoped, his great popularity might gain. He does not, however, seem to have entered on the undertaking very heartily; and when the Assembly passed a liberal vote, he obtained permission to accept it. Though

still ordered to press the general measure, he seems to have concerned himself very little about the matter, and thus the Assembly by dogged perseverance, finally gained this important object. They had remarked, that in these long controversies, ministers uniformly sought to overawe them by threatening to lay their conduct before the British legislature. Yet this menace having never been executed, they were led to suspect that body to be more favourable to them than the court represented. At all events they felt themselves encouraged to transmit a petition, desiring to have the direction and control of all public moneys; and hence their surprise and indignation were extreme when they learned that a vote had been passed pronouncing it to be "frivolous and groundless, an high insult upon his majesty's government, and tending to shake off the dependency of the said colony upon this kingdom, to which by law and right they are and ought to be subject."

In 1740, Belcher fell into unjust suspicion with the ministry, and was removed; but on his innocence being ascertained, he was compensated some years after with the government of New Jersey. He was succeeded by Shirley, who espoused somewhat the cause of prerogative; yet, by moderation and great kindness towards the opposite party, he retained a large share of their good will. This was heightened by his zealous promotion of the military operations against Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, which were carried on chiefly from Massachusetts, and crowned with signal success. Pownall, who was appointed in 1757, showed some preference for the popular party, though without alienating their antagonists; and his reputation was aided by certain warlike exploits in which he had some share. Bernard, who took his place in 1760, belongs to the period of revolutionary trouble.



THE FIRST MONEY COINED IN NEW ENGLAND.



EMIGRATION OF MR. HOOKER AND HIS COMPANY

CHAPTER XVIII.

SETTLEMENT OF CONNECTICUT.



IT has already been mentioned that in 1635, a company from Massachusetts, led by the Rev. Mr. Hooker, settled on the Connecticut river; prior to this, however, the territory had been obtained by the Earl of Warwick from the council of Plymouth, and afterwards transferred to a company of gentleman. During the same year the territory in question was visited by Mr. Winslow.

The Massachusetts emigrants settled at Wethersfield, Windsor, Hartford, and Saybrook. The latter was named after Lord Say-and-Seal and Lord Brooke, two of the proprietors.

The destruction of the Pequods has already been mentioned. Before this the Connecticut settlers were made to feel the principal



MASSACRE OF THE PEQUODS.

part of the calamities inseparable from Indian warfare. When the colonial force was raised which terminated the outrages, Connecticut furnished one hundred and fifty men, of whom seventy were Mohegan Indians. The expedition marched across the country to the Pequod fort, which was reached on the 5th of June. The object was to surprise it, but this was prevented by the barking of a watchdog. A fierce battle commenced, hand to hand, in which no quarter was shown. The enemy were so numerous as to render the contest for a long time doubtful; but before daybreak Mason fired the wigwams, and, encircling the burning village, shot down the warriors with the greatest ease. Six hundred of both sexes and all ages were massacred or burnt, seven were captured, and seven escaped. The colonists lost twenty-two, of whom two were killed. This terrible visitation completely broke the spirit of the neighbouring Indians, and secured peace to the settlements.

In the latter part of 1637, New Haven was settled by some adventurers from Boston. The settlement was further strengthened in the following spring; when John Davenport, a Puritan minister, and a Mr. Eaton, brought a number of settlers from Boston. Their govern-



SIGNING OF THE NEW ENGLAND CONFEDERATION

ment was based on strictly religious principles; Mr. Eaton was annually chosen governor until his death, and the colony seemed to have increased much faster than their more eastern neighbours.

Until this period Connecticut had acknowledged the jurisdiction of Massachusetts; but, as the territory was without the patent of the latter community, the people convened at Hartford, [January 24th, 1639,] and formed themselves into an independent colony. Their constitution provided that citizens should take an oath of allegiance to the commonwealth, instead of the crown; that all legislation should be vested in the general court; and that the governor and legislature should be elected annually. Hartford, Saybrook, and New Haven, were at this time separate colonies.

In 1643 Connecticut joined the New England Confederation. The great object of this compact seems to have been protection from the encroachments of the Dutch in New Netherlands. Disputes between the European powers disturbed the harmony of the colonies until 1650, when the Dutch governor concluded a treaty at Hartford defining the boundary line of his dominions. The occurrence of war between England and Holland [1651] opened new grounds for colonial rivalry. War was actually declared against New Netherlands

by the Confederation, but Massachusetts refused to furnish her quota of men. Connecticut then obtained from Cromwell the grant of a fleet to assist their forces ; but the expedition was interrupted by the conclusion of peace.

In 1662 Connecticut acknowledged her allegiance to Charles II., and through the influence of Lord Say-and-Seal, and the younger Winthrop, obtained a charter of unexampled liberality. It granted all the territory between the bay and river of Narragansett and the Pacific ocean, embracing the New Haven colony and a portion of Rhode Island. This caused dissatisfaction with the people of the latter settlement, which, on their receiving a charter in the following year, overrunning the Connecticut line, broke out into open dissensions, which lasted more than sixty years.

About the time of King Philip's war, [July, 1675,] Governor Andros, of New York, entered the mouth of the Connecticut, raised the king's flag, and demanded the surrender of the main fort ; but, through the firmness of the commandant, Captain Bull, he was obliged to return to New York. A more serious attempt was made in 1687, when Andros appeared at Hartford with a commission from King James, appointing him governor of New England. The assembly being in session, he demanded the colonial charter. A fierce contention arose, which lasted until night, the charter in the meanwhile being laid upon the table. Suddenly every light was extinguished. The motive for this singular occurrence became apparent when the candles were relighted. The charter had been removed by Captain Wadsworth, and placed in the trunk of an oak, which, from this circumstance, received the appellation of the Charter Oak. Although baffled in the attempt to deprive the people of their safeguard, Andros assumed the control of affairs, and governed until the accession of King William. The inhabitants were then restored to their chartered privileges.

The difficulties with New York, however, were not yet ended. In 1693, Colonel Fletcher, governor of that province, visited Hartford for the purpose of enforcing a royal commission constituting him leader of the Connecticut militia. As this was an infringement of their charter, the legislature refused to acknowledge him ; in consequence of which he summoned the militia on parade. When his instructions were about to be read, Captain Wadsworth ordered the drums to beat. Fletcher demanded silence, and his secretary again commenced the reading. The drums again beat, and again silence

was ordered. The intrepid Wadsworth now stepped forward, and said sternly: "If I am interrupted again, I will make daylight shine through you in one moment." This meaning language exerted a suitable influence, and Fletcher returned to New York. From this period until the opening of the Seven Years' War, Connecticut steadily advanced in strength and prosperity. In 1700, Yale College was founded at Saybrook by a few clergymen, and named after Elihu Yale, one of its most active supporters.



GOVERNOR ANDROS AND THE COMMISSIONERS MISSING
THE SECRETED CHARTER



ROGER WILLIAMS ENTERTAINED BY THE INDIAN°

CHAPTER XIX.

RHODE ISLAND.



E have had occasion, in the annals of Massachusetts, to notice the foundation of this little state by Roger Williams. After fleeing from Salem, and encountering many hardships, he reached a fertile spot at the head of a winding bay, which he named Providence. His friendship with the Indians, who had protected him when an exile, and whose cause he had always espoused, enabled him without difficulty to procure for himself and a few followers of his adverse fortune a small territory. Here he proclaimed his laudable principle of general toleration; and, receiving with kindness all who sought refuge in his domain, made it the chief resort of the partisans of the movement. Its numerous votaries, thrown out by the rigid orthodoxy of Massachusetts, found here a hearty welcome. A certain motley character, especially in regard to creed and worship, was the

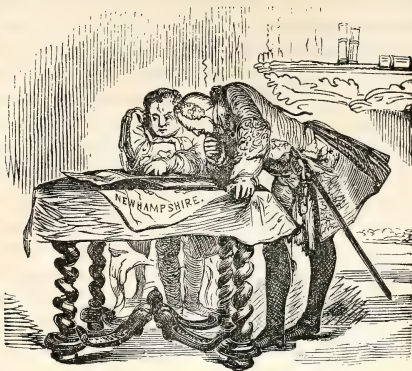
necessary consequence. Yet, even in periods of the most rapid innovation, there appears a tendency to unity, caused by the newer and bolder sects absorbing those which preceded, and whose tenets had lost the gloss of novelty. The first great accession was from Mrs. Hutchinson's party; and though their views seem to have had little resemblance to his, the two were quickly amalgamated. These refugees, possessing considerable property, made a large purchase from the Indians, which, combined with Providence, composed the state of Rhode Island. The Baptist movement next followed, which Mrs. Hutchinson and her sister so zealously embraced that they prevailed upon Williams himself, at an advanced age, to submit anew to the sacred rite. Even he, however, was struck with horror at the wild effusions of Gorton, and at seeing them propagated in his settlement with the usual success. Actuated by his characteristic mildness, however, he merely effected an arrangement by which that personage, with his fervid adherents, went out and formed another establishment. This was soon followed by the Quaker excitement, which, in its greatest violence, he had sound judgment enough to repress; but as he allowed to its adherents a refuge denied everywhere else, Rhode Island soon became the point whence they issued forth to the neighbouring states, and upon which they returned. They experienced also the usual success of daring innovators, and, notwithstanding all his efforts, soon became the ruling sect. Mrs. Hutchinson was dead; but her sister, Katherine Scott, and her intimate friend Mrs. Dyer, ranked high among the gifted prophetesses.

From these causes, the colony silently grew, and in 1680 was reported to contain five hundred planters and five hundred other men, whence, as these last were apparently adults, we may infer an entire population of about four thousand. Newport was the harbour; but as yet there was very little either of commerce or of shipping. The religious sects were of course numerous, especially the Baptists and Quakers. The settlement, however, had all along been viewed with an evil eye by the people of Massachusetts, who saw in it the chief pivot on which turned that enthusiastic movement by which they were so much annoyed. Its exclusion from the union of the colonies in 1643 marked strongly this spirit, and placed it in a somewhat precarious situation. Williams, however, who in 1644 went to Britain, where the independents were then in full power, and his friend Vane one of their chief leaders, easily obtained a popular charter for the towns of Providence, Newport, and Portsmouth, with

a recommendation equivalent to an order, that New England should exchange good offices with him. On his return he was received with a species of triumph; and his still jealous neighbours were obliged to content themselves with shutting their state against him and his people. Again, after the Restoration, John Clarke, the agent of the colony, procured from Charles II. a fresh charter, securing all their privileges, and particularly confirming the right of religious freedom. That prince, however, in the end of his reign. and his successor, in a manner still more determined, applied themselves to cancel all the colonial charters. In July, 1685, accordingly. a *quo warranto* was issued against that of Rhode Island, which, being announced to the Assembly, they sent a very humble reply, declaring their intention not to stand suit with his majesty, but earnestly soliciting a continuance of their privileges, especially in regard to their faith. James accepted their submission, and, by his instructions, Andros, in December, 1686, dissolved the government, broke its seal, and assumed the entire administration. But, after the Revolution of 1688, the people laid hold "of their former gracious privileges," and shared in this respect the good fortune of Connecticut. They were allowed to resume their charter, which had never been legally forfeited.



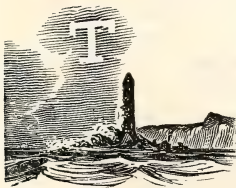
PAWTUCKET R. I.



GORGES AND MASON NAMING THEIR PROVINCES.

CHAPTER XX.

MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE.



THE extensive region between Massachusetts and the country claimed by France under the name of Acadia, having early drawn the notice of English adventurers, the two most active members of the Plymouth Company, Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason, undertook to colonize it. The latter, secretary to the council, obtained, in 1621, a grant of the lands between Salem and the Merrimack; and next year, in conjunction with Gorges, of those between the last-mentioned river and the Kennebeck, as far as the St. Lawrence. In 1629, and again in 1635, when the company was broken up, Mason acquired fresh patents for his portion, which then received the name of New Hampshire. In 1638, however, before the settlement had come to any maturity, he died, and his family were unable to derive any benefit from this vast donation. Sir Ferdinando, meantime, at the crisis of 1635, procured for himself exclu-

sively the whole territory from New Hampshire to the Kennebeck, and this was confirmed in 1639 by a patent from the king, when it received the name of Maine.

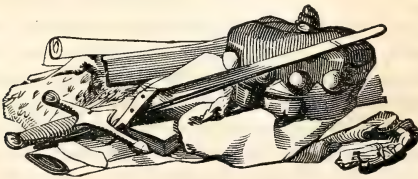
These proprietors appear to have set great value on their grants, and to have made active exertions to improve them. Dover and Portsmouth were early founded on the Piscataqua; and in 1635, Gorges sent out his nephew to govern the district. Yet their settlements made very slow progress. Being high church and monarchy men, they granted none of those franchises by which alone emigrants could be attracted to this northern soil; while to the aristocratic class Virginia offered a much more tempting resort. Only a few hardy adventurers were enticed by the abundant supply of fish and timber, who gradually formed along the coast small stations, adding the practice of a slight agriculture for the supply of immediate wants.

Massachusetts, however, began to overflow into these territories. In 1637, Wheelwright, the antinomian preacher, founded on the Piscataqua the town of Exeter, without paying much regard to the proprietor's rights, though he was ultimately obliged to submit to his officer, Williams. Three years afterwards, Massachusetts advanced claims to New Hampshire, as being within her patent; and although her pretensions were far from valid, her strength and the inclination of the people enabled her without difficulty to make them good. This new member was incorporated and endowed with all her political privileges. Several zealous ministers were sent, who are said to have greatly improved the people; but they had the discretion not to enforce any exclusive system, and during nearly forty years of this rule the foundations of solid prosperity were laid. The feeling spread among the small seaports which began to stud the coast of Maine, and they were successively, either at their own request, or by the consent of large majorities, incorporated with the others. The proprietors loudly, and with good show of reason, remonstrated against these proceedings, but without obtaining any redress. The independents, now in power, were adverse to them, and friendly to Massachusetts; while the people, included within the political system of the latter state, earnestly petitioned for its continuance.

A complete reverse took place at the restoration of Charles II., all whose partialities were in favour of the old royalist proprietors, and against the Puritan colony. Gorges and Mason, grandsons of the original patentees, immediately applied for restitution of their rights, which was granted, and the commissioners then sent out were in-

structed to enforce it. Yet the general court, by their local power, the affections of the inhabitants, and by constantly evading the demand for deputies duly empowered, contrived, during sixteen years, to retain the jurisdiction; but being, in 1677, brought before the chief justices of England, their pretensions were at once set aside. Mason was also obliged to yield his authority, though retaining a claim upon the lands. Maine was assigned to Gorges; but the rulers of Massachusetts contrived to purchase his rights for £1250, a sum, perhaps, above its actual value at the moment. They incurred reproach by treating it as a subject territory, appointing the governor and council, though they graciously allowed a popular legislature.

New Hampshire being thus thrown loose, it was determined to manage it as a royal province; and in 1682, Edward Cranfield was sent as administrator. His government was one continued scene of discontent on the part of the people, amounting sometimes to rebellion. Mr. Bancroft represents him as avowedly making it his sole object to amass money. It appears more certain that all his maxims were those of high prerogative; while Massachusetts had breathed among the people the Puritan and republican spirit in its full force. He wrote "that while the clergy were allowed to preach, no true allegiance would be found in those parts." In 1685, he solicited his recall, declaring he should "esteem it the greatest happiness in the world to be allowed to remove from these unreasonable people." Presently after, this country with the whole of New England was united under the successive governments of Dudley and Andros. At the Revolution, it again became a separate and royal colony, though with some dependence on Massachusetts.





GOVERNOR STUYVESANT

CHAPTER XXI.

NEW YORK.



NOTWITHSTANDING the paramount importance to which New York has attained, its early settlement was not accompanied by such striking circumstances as marked those of some other colonies.

About the year 1600, the attention of the English and Dutch had been directed to the discovery of a northern passage to India, which they hoped might at once be shorter, and enable them to escape the still formidable hostility of Spain. After this object had been vainly pursued by Frobisher, Davis, Barentz, and

other navigators, it was resumed by Henry Hudson. Though a native of Holland, he was first employed by a company of English merchants, when he made the daring effort to cross the pole itself, and penetrated farther in that direction than any of his predecessors; but the icy barriers compelled him to return. He next attempted an eastern passage, between Nova Zembla and Spitzbergen, but again failed. His patrons in London then lost courage; but he, animated by the same ardour, solicited and obtained from the Dutch East India Company a small vessel, named the *Crescent*, to renew his researches. After another abortive endeavour at an eastern passage, he appears to have finally renounced that object; and steering toward the west, began to explore the American coast, from Newfoundland southwards. It had, indeed, been to a great extent both discovered and settled, yet not in such continuity as to preclude the hope of finding a deep bay leading to the Pacific, and through it to the East Indies. In the beginning of July he reached the great bank, and continued his course cautiously along the shores of Acadia. In 44° he touched at the mouth of a spacious river, which appears to have been the Penobscot, where the French were found carrying on a very active trade. In passing Cape Cod, his people landed at several points, and held intercourse with the natives. They then pursued their course through the open sea, till, on the 17th August, they came in sight of a low land, and soon afterwards found themselves off the bar of James's River, where they understood that the English had formed a settlement. No opening having yet occurred, it seemed expedient to return northward, keeping closer to the coast. They found it running north-west, and entered a great bay with rivers, evidently that of Delaware. The water was so shoaly, however, as to prevent its exploration, unless in pinnaces drawing only four or five feet. They proceeded therefore to the coast now called New Jersey, and were involved in the range of islands running parallel to it. The navigation was very difficult on account of storms and frequent shallows. At length Hudson came to a continuous land, good and pleasant, rising boldly from the sea, and bounded by high hills. He appeared to discover the mouths of three great rivers, which, however, could only be different channels, separated by islands, of the great stream now bearing his name. Boats were sent to sound the most northern of them, which was found to afford a good depth of water. They entered it, and were soon visited by large parties of natives in canoes, when a friendly exchange took place, of tobacco and maize for knives

and beads. Unfortunately, a boat, being sent to examine one of the other channels, was assailed by twenty of the savages in two skiffs, one of the seamen killed, and two wounded. This unhappy event poisoned their future intercourse with the Indians, whose friendly professions were henceforth considered as made only with a view to betray them. At one place, twenty-eight canoes, full of men, women, and children, approached and made overtures for trade; but their intentions being considered evil, they were not allowed to come on board. In ascending, the Hudson was found to be a noble stream, a mile broad, and bordered by lofty mountains. Seventeen days after entering it, the vessel, being embarrassed by shoals, stopped at a point where a small city has since been built, bearing the name of the discoverer. A boat sailed eight or nine leagues higher, somewhat above the site of Albany, where it was clear that the ship could not proceed farther. In this upper tract, the intercourse with the natives was very friendly, and even the suspicions of the crew were lulled. One party came on board, who being freely treated with wine and aquavitæ, became all merry, and one completely tipsy, the effects of which caused to his companions the greatest surprise. On the way down, they were repeatedly attacked by the large body which in ascending had excited their jealousy. On each occasion, a discharge of musketry, killing two or three, caused all the rest to take flight. On leaving the river, Hudson made directly for Europe, and arrived at Dartmouth on the 7th November, 1609.

He transmitted to the Dutch Company a flattering report of the country which he had discovered, and recommended a settlement. They gave him so little encouragement that he was obliged to seek employment from the London merchants, by whom he was sent on the remarkable voyage which resulted in the exploration of Hudson's bay, and in the melancholy event of his own death, through a mutiny of the crew.

In virtue of these discoveries the Dutch claimed the country, and in 1610 sent out a vessel for traffic. Stations were formed on Manhattan [New York] island, which, in 1613, were claimed by Argall. This authority was merely nominal, and was utterly disregarded by the Dutch government. In the following year a fort was built by some merchants, and other stations extended as far as the Mohawk.

In 1620 the Dutch West India Company was incorporated. Their privileges included the whole western coast of Africa, as far as the Cape, with all the eastern shores of America from Newfoundland to

the Straits of Magellan. Over this vast territory they had the exclusive right of concluding treaties, carrying on war, and exercising all the functions of government. This monstrous grant would include, as we have seen, claims of colonies belonging to England, France, Spain, and Portugal, and was of course regarded by these powers with any other than a favourable eye. All colonies founded on it were consequently fiercely disputed and most precariously held. The weakness of the Portuguese crown enabled them to grasp large portions of its territory in Brazil and on the African coast; but in North America, not venturing to measure their strength with Britain, they contented themselves with silently enlarging their stations on the Hudson, which the latter showed no disposition to occupy. The country was called New Netherlands; and a cluster of cottages where New York now stands, was named New Amsterdam.

In 1629 the Dutch government attempted to found an extensive colony in New Netherlands. It was planned on quite an aristocratic basis. Though lands were granted to detached settlers, yet opulent individuals were expected to carry out bodies of tenants at their own expense—those transporting fifty becoming lords of manors, with the absolute property of the lands thus colonized. They might possess tracts sixteen miles long, and even employ negro labour if desirable. They encountered, however, many difficulties; and two manors established on Delaware bay were destroyed by Indians. A station on the Connecticut was abandoned on account of its proximity to the more powerful English one, and Lord Baltimore strenuously advocated his title to all land extending to the fortieth degree of latitude. Besides this, the imprudence of their governor, Kieft, in killing, with little provocation, nearly one hundred Indians, involved him in a general war with that people, which, lasting two years, effectually checked the progress of New Netherlands.

In 1646, Kieft was recalled, and Peter Stuyvesant, an officer distinguished for bravery and honesty, appointed to succeed him. The change was highly satisfactory to the people. By wisely adopting a humane policy toward the Indians, the new governor obviated all difficulty with them; and also obtained from the company a release from the immoderate duties which had hitherto trammelled commerce. He suffered, however, much trouble from the English, who were continually extending their frontier on and beyond the Connecticut, and set scarcely any limit to their claims. As the settlers greatly discouraged all idea of war with so powerful a neighbour, Stuyve-



GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

sant was obliged to obtain, by large concessions, a provisional compact, which, although never ratified in England, obtained for his people some security. Determined, however, to find some exercise for his active mind, he resolved to chastise the Swedish colony for some violent proceedings of the governor, Rising. This settlement was much inferior to New Netherlands, and the mother country, after the death of Gustavus Adolphus, of Sweden, could afford it but little assistance. Having assembled a force of six hundred men, Stuyvesant marched into New Sweden, and after a short struggle, overthrew the government and incorporated the settlement with his own. A few of the inhabitants returned to their native country; the greater part yielded to the mild sway of the conqueror. About the same time a little art enabled him to evade the claims of Lord Baltimore.

The company, though they did not grant any political franchises to the colonists, took great care to have them well governed, and to check those despotic practices in which Stuyvesant, from his military habits, was prone to indulge. They prohibited likewise all persecution, and studied to make the country a refuge for professors of every creed. From France, the Low Countries, the Rhine, Northern Germany, Bohemia, the mountains of Piedmont, the suffering protestants flocked to this transatlantic asylum. Even the New Englanders, allured by the fine climate and fertile soil, arrived in great

numbers, and formed entire villages. It therefore became expedient to have a secretary of their nation, and to issue proclamations in French and English, as well as Dutch. To augment the variety, the company introduced as many negro slaves as they conveniently could. New York became, as Mr. Bancroft terms it, a city of the world; its inhabitants termed themselves a blended community of various lineage. Unluckily for the Dutch, the protestants of that age carried generally with them an ardent attachment to civil liberty, which was pushed to its utmost height by those of New England. Their views soon found favour in the eyes even of the Hollanders; for, though some of the more opulent were adverse to any very broad popular institutions, they could not forbear joining in the objection to be taxed without their own consent. Innovations of this nature, it appeared, were agreeable neither to the company nor the governor. The colonists, having sent over a deputation to the former, obtained a few municipal privileges, but none of the rights of a representative government. Such was their perseverance, however, that they erected one for themselves, by calling two deputies from each village; and the body thus assembled presented a remonstrance to Stuyvesant, claiming that their consent should be necessary to the enactment of new laws, and even to the appointment of officers. He received this address extremely ill, and bitterly reproached them with yielding to the visionary notions of the New Englanders; stating that the laws were good, and would continue to be well executed, but could not be allowed to emanate from the wavering multitude. He derived his authority only from God and the West India Company, who would never become responsible to their own subjects. The remonstrants were therefore commanded, under a severe penalty, immediately to disperse. In this the company firmly supported their governor, directing that the people should no longer indulge the visionary dream that taxes could be imposed only with their own consent. They, however, cherished a deep dissatisfaction, which, though it did not break out into open violence, indisposed them to make any exertions in support of a government under which they enjoyed no rights. This became of serious consequence in the crisis that was now approaching.

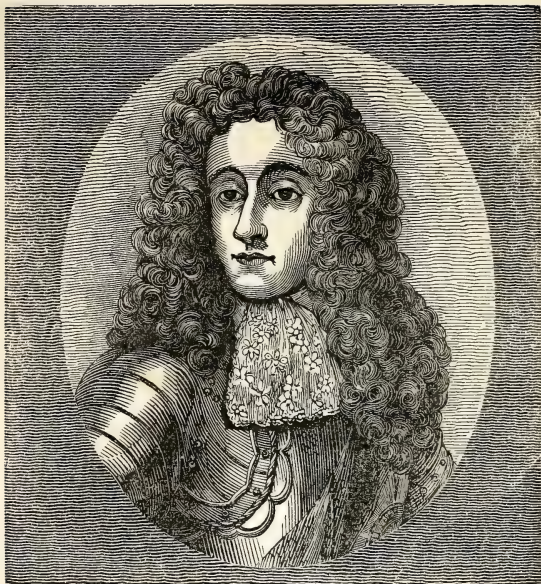
Early in 1664, Charles II., by an act of flagrant injustice, ceded the territory of New Netherlands to his brother, the Duke of York, although Holland and England were then at peace. To make good this donation, Sir Robert Nichols was sent out with an expe-



CHARLES II. GIVING THE NEW NETHERLANDS TO THE DUKE
OF YORK

dition, to be reinforced by a detachment from another colony. He cast anchor opposite New Amsterdam, in August, and after landing upon Long Island, summoned the city to surrender, under promise of respecting the rights and property of the inhabitants, and permitting the continuance of their ancient laws. The governor, by delay and negotiation, attempted to avert the danger; but as Nichols declined all discussion, the principal citizens, headed by Winthrop from Connecticut, convened in the town-house, and drew up articles of surrender corresponding with the demand of the English officer. Stuyvesant, however, refused to sign them until the place was actually in the enemy's hands.

The government established by the Duke of York was by no means so lenient as the people had a right to expect. Heavy taxes were imposed, and in the War of the League, when Louis XVI. and Charles II. were arrayed against Holland, the colonists were treated with absolute tyranny. Nichols exacted large sums of money by first obtaining new patents for the Dutch, and then levying heavy fees on them. Subsequently, Lovelace avowed the policy of making duties so heavy that the people might have opportunity to think of nothing but the means of paying them. Andros behaved with a rigour which excited open opposition; but notwithstanding the num-



JAMES II.

berless petitions for redress, received by the duke, he was for a long while retained in office, and even applauded for his energy in suppressing "all mention of assemblies." At length, however, he was recalled; and, wearied by importunities, James consented to allow the colonists representation.

The accession of James II. was hailed by the colonists with heartfelt rejoicings; but they soon found that their satisfaction had been premature. The king was determined to abolish all appearance of democracy. The governor was instructed to call no more assemblies, but centre the legislative power in his own person. In 1688, Andros arrived from England with authority to unite all the New England States and New York under one absolute control—an annexation peculiarly odious to settlements formed from hostile nations. Public feeling became completely alienated from the crown; so that

the first rumors of the revolution were received with uncontrollable delight.

Meantime the king sent orders for Nichols to continue for the present the administration of affairs. But this officer had previously been obliged to depart for England, in consequence of the people's opposition. As the appointment was accompanied by the provision, "or to such as for the time execute the law," Jacob Leisler, the popular leader, applied this to himself, and assumed the gubernatorial office. He held two assemblies, and concluded a treaty with New England, agreeing to raise nine hundred men for the mutual defence. But though supported by a majority, a powerful party disowned his authority and insulted him in the capital. After much difficulty the opposition was put down; but King William took no notice of Leisler's pretensions.

In March, 1691, Colonel Sloughter arrived at New York to take charge of affairs. Leisler refused to acknowledge him, pretending that the colonel's commission was defective, and that he would abdicate only by an order from the king's own hand. Being unpopular, he was compelled, through an insurrection, to tender his resignation. Refusing to receive it, the new governor arrested him, and appointed a special commission for his trial. He was speedily condemned to death, and with Milbourne, his principal adviser, suffered on the scaffold. Sloughter himself died soon after, [August 2, 1691,] and was succeeded by Colonel Fletcher. The only important act of Sloughter's administration was the renewal of a treaty with the Five Nations.

Fletcher was an able officer; but his domineering temper, a fault too common in those days, soon involved him in violent contests with the Assembly. A leading object was the establishment of episcopacy, which after great exertions was sanctioned by the members, with the salvo annexed that the people should choose their own ministers. In a violent speech on this occasion, Fletcher so far forgot the dignity of his station as to denominate the members ill-tempered, stubborn and unmannerly, and even accuse them of attempts to engross the entire legislative power. After the failure of his attempt to obtain command of the Connecticut militia, he seems to have moderated his views, and gave up the fruitless scheme of intimidating the colonial assemblies.

Fletcher was succeeded [1698] by the Earl of Bellamont, whose mild government went far toward soothing the jealousies still existing



TREATY WITH THE FIVE NATIONS

between the partisans of Leisler and their aristocratic opponents. It was under his administration that the famous Captain Kidd was commissioned to suppress piracy, which had increased to an alarming extent. This individual betraying his trust, turned pirate himself, and after making his name a terror to seamen, was at length arrested at Boston, and sent to England for trial.

Bellamont died in 1701, and was succeeded by Lord Cornbury, a degenerate descendant of the Earl of Clarendon. Entirely opposite to his predecessor, he showed an embittered enmity to the popular party, accompanied by a bigoted attachment to episcopacy, and hatred of all other forms of religion. He seconded also the attempts made by Dudley to subvert the charter of Connecticut. Indulging in extravagant habits, he squandered large sums of the public money, and contracted debts, the payment of which his official situation enabled him to evade. He thus rendered himself odious and contemptible to all parties, who united in a firm remonstrance to Queen Anne, and induced her to revoke his commission. No longer protected by the privileges of office, he was thrown into prison, and on

tained liberation only when the death of his father raised him to the peerage.

Lord Lovelace succeeded, who, on his arrival, made a demand, destined to cause much dissension, for a permanent salary to the governor. Yet his general deportment was popular and satisfactory ; but he lived only a few months. The reins were then held for a short time by Ingoldsby, who also made himself very acceptable ; and in 1710, the office was filled by Sir Robert Hunter, a man of wit and talent, by which he had raised himself from a low rank in society. He went out, however, strongly imbued with monarchical principles, and determined to resist the claims of the Assembly. In advancing the demand for a fixed income, he made use of very offensive expressions, insinuating doubts of their right to appropriate the public money, and suspicions that it was the government, not the governor, whom they disliked. In the council also, the doctrine was advanced, that the Assembly existed only "by the mere grace of the crown." The latter body strenuously vindicated their rights, and refused to grant more than a temporary provision. They remonstrated strongly also against the establishment of a court of chancery, suspected to be with a view of increasing his emoluments. On this ground there seemed great hazard of a collision ; but Hunter, being a sensible man, and seeing their very strong determination, deemed it expedient to yield ; and, during his latter years, he studied with success to maintain harmony among the different branches of the administration.

He was succeeded by Burnet, a son of the celebrated bishop and historian, an accomplished, amiable man. He appears to have zealously studied the welfare of the colony ; he became very generally popular ; and was particularly successful in gaining over the Indian tribes. His attempt, however, to maintain the obnoxious court of chancery, involved him in violent disputes with the Assembly. On the advice of a few patriotic but indiscreet individuals, he adopted the injurious measure of prohibiting all commercial intercourse between New York and Canada. In 1720 he was removed, though compensated with the government of Massachusetts.

After a short interval, the direction of affairs was assumed in 1732 by Colonel Cosby, a man of such a violent character as created general aversion to him. Strong interest was excited by the trial of Zenger, editor of a journal which had attacked his administration ; but through the exertions of Hamilton, an eminent advocate, he was triumphantly acquitted. Cosby died in 1736, and was followed by

Clarke who, having given scarcely more satisfaction, yielded the place in 1741 to Clinton, who ruled upwards of ten years with considerable success and popularity. His successor, Sir Danvers Osborne, suffered severely by the discovery, in 1754, of very arbitrary instructions transmitted to him from home. A great ferment was thus kindled, but gradually subsided; and we find the royal authority subsequently respected till the time of the Revolution.



HERETO little has been said concerning the Indian tribes of this colony. Difficulties with the Five Nations and other tribes early occurred. In 1640, Staten Island was attacked and New Amsterdam threatened; but peace was at length secured through the exertions of Roger Williams. Kieft rendered himself infamous for his cruelty to the red men, which but for the far different policy of Stuyvesant, would have produced serious results. In 1663, Kingston, [then called Esopus,] was unexpectedly entered by the Indians, and sixty-five persons killed or carried away. This was retaliated by a force from New Amsterdam, who laid waste the Indian villages, and killed a number of their warriors.

But the most terrible calamity which befel the colony while in the hands of the English, was the burning of Schenectady. Early in 1690, several hundred French and Indians marched from Canada, to attack this village, which was then a somewhat remote settlement on the Mohawk. The weather was so intensely cold, and the road through wilds, forests, and mountain districts, so difficult, that only three hundred reached the Mohawk, but in so dispirited a condition that they resolved to surrender. Arriving at Schenectady about midnight, and finding every thing in unconscious security, they again changed their design, and resolved to improve so fair an opportunity for massacre. They spread themselves through the village, fired it in different places, and tomahawked all ages, sexes and conditions, that fell into their hands. Sixty were killed and thirty carried off for torture. Many of those who escaped the massacre, froze to death in journeying to other settlements. This was followed by various movements against the neighbouring tribes, until the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713.



NASSAU HALL, NEW JERSEY.

CHAPTER XXII.

NEW JERSEY.



NEW JERSEY, being a branch detached from the state just named, will be considered most advantageously in connection with that colony. When Nichols, in 1664, made the conquest of the united territory, the tract along the seacoast, from the west end of Long Island to the Delaware, appeared to him the most favourable for settlement. He invited

hither farmers from New England, who already displayed a migratory and enterprising character, and going in considerable numbers. formed along the shore a range of villages. While Nichols, however, was exulting in the success of these efforts, he was struck with dismay by a commission being presented to him, in which the Duke of York constituted Lords Berkeley and Carteret proprietors of this

whole line of coast. It had been granted even before the news of the conquest arrived, and it may be presumed that a pecuniary consideration was given, though nothing transpired on that subject. Chagrined beyond measure, he addressed to the duke a long letter, complaining that he had unguardedly parted with the most valuable portion of his patent, leaving New York almost without a territory. Not choosing to accuse the proprietors of having deceived his grace, he throws the blame on a Captain Scot, who he declares was born to work mischief. The grantees, it is urged, should be made to accept a tract of 100,000 acres on the Delaware, which, by an expenditure of £20,000, might yield profit, not to themselves perhaps, but to their children's children. The duke, however, honourably determined to adhere to his engagement.



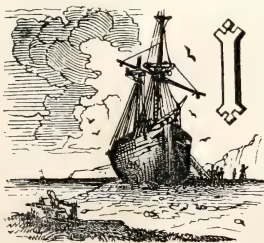
THE proprietors, in order to invite settlers, granted franchises of some importance. One was an Assembly, half at least of the members of which were to be representatives, and without whose consent no tax could be imposed. The owners reserved to themselves the veto and judicial appointments; but they per-

mitted full freedom of religious worship. Carteret went out as governor, and in compliment to him the colony was called New Jersey. The profit of the proprietors was to arise solely from a quit-rent of 1d. an acre, to be levied only at the end of five years. All went on smoothly till that term arrived, when the settlers, being called upon for payment, showed very little disposition to comply. They urged, that they had purchased their lands from the Indians, and it was extremely hard, after advancing a price, to be required to give a rent also. Discontents rose so high, that Carteret was obliged to leave the colony, and a natural son of his own was elected in his room. Soon afterwards, the country was conquered by the Dutch, and on its restoration next year, the people peaceably received back their old governor, who gratified them by postponing to a later period the demand for quit-rents, and by other concessions. The proprietors, however, were considerably annoyed by the rulers of New York, who, claiming rights of jurisdiction and taxation, particularly sought to prevent any trade, unless through the medium of their capital.

James does not seem to have been disposed to sanction any actual breach of the original contract ; and Jones, the chief-justice, reported on the most essential points in favour of the settlers. The local power, however, of the greater colony, wielded by the impetuous Andros, was successfully exerted to harass them in various modes.



MEANTIME, as late as 1674, Lord Berkeley, disappointed in the hopes with which he had embarked in the undertaking, sold half his territory for £1000 to a party of Quakers, among whom the chief were Byllinge, Fenwick, and William Penn. In arranging with Carteret, who still retained his share, it was found most convenient to divide the province into two parts ; these were called East and West Jersey—the latter being assigned to the new owners. But the duke, whose concurrence was required in the transaction, took the opportunity of re-asserting his dominion over that portion, which was subjected to the arbitrary rule and taxation of New York. Jones, however, decided that, there having been no reservation of such claims in the original grant, they could not be now legally enforced. Hence, in 1680, the province was delivered in full right to the proprietors, whose object was to render the place an asylum for the persecuted Quakers, a considerable number of whom were soon assembled. It became necessary to gratify them by a constitution, based on principles of liberty and even of equality ; and they made pretensions to the election of their own governor.



IN 1682, Carteret, finding little satisfaction in his possession of New Jersey, sold all his rights to another body of twelve Quakers, Penn being again one. The new owners, with a view to extend their influence, added to their number twelve more of different professions—the principal of whom was the Duke of Perth, a nobleman of great power in Scotland.

His object was to offer an asylum to the Presbyterians of that country, under the iniquitous persecutions to which they were exposed. Hunted like wild beasts from place to place, it was justly thought that many would gladly accept a home in the New World. A con

siderable number were accordingly conveyed thither, and they formed a laborious, useful, and respectable class of settlers.



NOTHING, however, could secure them against the determination formed by James to subvert the rights of all the colonies, and establish in them a completely despotic administration.

Andros, without any express authority, began to exercise both jurisdiction and taxation; and as these were strenuously resisted—the juries refusing to convict under them—complaints were sent home of their insubordination. The duke hereupon, forgetting all his former pledges, ordered, in April, 1686, that writs of *quo warranto* should be entered against both East and West Jersey, “which ought to be more dependent on his majesty.” The proprietors, having in vain attempted to deprecate this measure, at length deemed it expedient to surrender their patent, only soliciting a grant securing their title to the soil; but, before the transaction could be completed, it was interrupted by the Revolution, which left them in the possession of all their claims. They acted on them so feebly however, that the country is represented as remaining nearly in a state of anarchy till 1702, when they were induced to surrender all their political powers to the crown. The two Jerseys were then reunited, and were governed from that time as a royal colony.





WILLIAM PENN.

CHAPTER XXIII.

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.



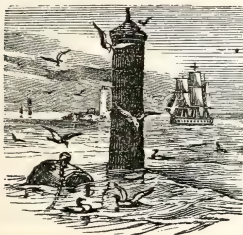
WILLIAM PENN was one of the most illustrious characters of modern times. Born to rank and distinction, son of an admiral who had attained celebrity under Cromwell by the conquest of Jamaica, he embraced at college the persecuted cause of the Quakers, and devoted himself to it throughout his whole life. Refusing to retract or compromise his views, he was expelled from his father's house, becoming amenable to all the rigours then enforced against eccentric modes of religious worship and teaching. He indulged at first in certain extravagances ; but ripening years, combined with extensive study, and travel over a great part of Europe, enlarged his mind, and while retaining the same devoted attachment to what was valuable in his system, he purified it from its principal errors. His steady course of Christian kindness gained for him the general esteem of the public, and ulti-

mately led to a reconciliation with his parent, who bequeathed to him the whole of his property.



AMONG the tenets of this school, which Penn at all times advocated with the utmost zeal, was that of complete liberty in religious opinion and worship. It became, indeed, a leading object of his life to render himself a shield not only to his own people, but to all who on this ground were exposed to suffering and persecution. Unable as yet fully to accomplish his end in the Old World, he conceived the plan of providing for them, in the new continent, an asylum similar to that of their pilgrim ancestors. By founding there a state open to the votaries of every faith, he might, he hoped, fulfil this benevolent purpose, and at the same time secure for himself a degree of importance and wealth. He possessed, in virtue of his father's services, a claim on government, estimated at £16,000; but after a long delay, amid the exigencies of the court, he could not without difficulty have rendered it effective in any shape, except for one favourable circumstance. He enjoyed the favour both of Charles II. and James II., and was always a welcome guest at Whitehall. This intercourse with princes whose character was so unlike his own, excited in that age a feeling of surprise which we can scarcely avoid sharing. The most injurious surmises arose—he was represented as a Papist, and even a Jesuit. He seems, however, to have clearly proved, that he never concurred in any of the illegal measures of those rulers, but employed his influence almost solely with the view of obtaining protection for those numerous sufferers in whom he took so deep an interest. Had his object been money, he must have encountered many obstacles in obtaining it from the dilapidated treasury of Charles. It was much easier to get the royal assent respecting a desert region beyond the Atlantic, whence no immediate benefit was derived. His petition, presented in June, 1680, was referred to the agents of the Duke of York and Lord Baltimore, who declared it to be unobjectionable, provided the rights of these individuals were preserved inviolate. Penn, therefore, submitted the draft of a charter, which, after being revised by Chief Justice North and the Bishop of London, was passed under the seal-royal. It granted to him the tract in America extending northwards from the 40th to the 43d degree of latitude, and five degrees of longitude westward, from a boundary-line drawn twelve miles from Newcastle on the Delaware. Nearly the same privileges

were conceded as were formerly granted to Lord Baltimore. The proprietor was empowered to dispose of the lands in fee-simple, to levy taxes with the consent of the freemen or their delegates, to erect courts of justice, and (what one might scarcely have expected) to raise forces for the defence of the province by sea and land. There was reserved, however, the sovereignty of the crown, and its claim to allegiance; also an appeal from the courts to the king in council, and the right of parliament to levy custom-duties. The acts passed by the Assembly and the owner were to be transmitted within five years to his majesty, and if considered unconstitutional, might be disallowed. The Bishop of London stipulated for the reception of a preacher, as soon as one should be requested by twenty of the settlers.



INVESTED with these ample powers, Penn proceeded to give to the colony a constitution, on a very liberal footing. A council of seventy-two, elected by the body of the people, and having a third of their number renewed every year, carried on the executive government, in conjunction with the proprietor, who was allowed three votes. This body was divided into four committees,

of plantation, trade, justice, and education. They prepared the bills and propositions which were submitted to the General Assembly, also elected by the people. They were to sit nine days only, during eight of which they were to consider the proposals made by the council, and on the ninth to pronounce their decision. This system, said to have been copied chiefly from the Oceana of Harrington, was not very well fitted for practical purposes, and had not a long duration.

PENN now circulated widely his proposals through Britain, France, and Germany; the oppressed and impoverished of every class being invited to this land of promise. He recommended it not only to those who suffered under religious persecution, but "to industrious labourers and handicraftsmen—ingenious spirits low in the world—younger brothers of small inheritances, instead of hanging on as retainers on their elder brother's table and charity—lastly, to men



THE TREATY MONUMENT ON THE SITE OF THE ELM TREE, WHERE PENN'S TREATY WAS MADE.

of an universal spirit, who have an eye to the good of posterity." The necessary expense of conveyance was stated to be—for an adult, £5; a child under twelve, £2 10s.; goods £2 per ton. Those who could not afford even this moderate amount, were informed that, on engaging with emigrants of property for a service of four years, not only would their passage be defrayed, but at the end of the term they would receive fifty acres, at 2s. quit-rent. An extent of five thousand acres was sold for £100, with 50s. quit-rent, commencing only in 1684. Those who preferred might pay merely a quit-rent of 1d. an acre, or £20, 16s. 8d. Smaller tracts were disposed of at corresponding prices. Poor men were allowed fifty acres at $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per acre.



THESE advantageous terms, the troubled state of Europe, and the high character of the proprietor, caused his proposals to be received with general favour. An influx into America took place, such as had never been equalled since the days of the first settlers. Between 1682 and 1685, there arrived ninety sail, conveying an average of eighty passengers, in all seventy-two hundred, besides one thousand who had landed in 1681. They had been sent under his kinsman Markham, to take

possession of the country, and prepare the way for the larger colony. He found no difficulty in completing the purchase of an extensive tract of land from the Indians, on terms satisfactory to them, yet moderate for the buyer.



ON October, 1682, Penn arrived, with a body of two thousand emigrants. After some time spent in surveying his new possessions, he, in the beginning of 1683, arranged a meeting with the native chiefs, under the canopy of a spacious elm tree, near the present site of Philadelphia. They appeared on the day appointed, in their rude attire, and with brandished weapons, beneath the shadow of those dense woods which covered what is now the district of Kensington. On learning that the English approached, they deposited their arms and sat down in groups, each tribe behind its own chieftain. Penn then stepping forward, in his usual plain dress and unarmed, held forth in his hand the parchment on which the treaty was engrossed. In a simple speech, he announced to them those principles of equity and amity upon which he desired that all their future intercourse should be conducted. He besought them to keep this parchment during three generations. The Indians replied, in their usual solemn and figurative language, that they would live in peace with him and with his children while the sun and moon should endure. A friendly display like this is by no means unusual in the first opening of intercourse between civilized and savage nations; but seldom, indeed, does it long continue unbroken, or fail even of being succeeded by an embittered enmity. Pennsylvania afforded at least one happy exception. Her founder continued with this savage people on terms not only of peace, but of intimate union; he visited them in their villages, he slept in their wigwams; they welcomed him almost as a brother. Forty years afterwards they said to the governor, Sir William Keith, as the highest possible compliment:—"We esteem and love you as if you were William Penn himself." What was still more wonderful, the colonists, though they had to struggle with many uncongenial spirits in their own body, succeeded in maintaining good terms with the natives; and for nearly a century, the Indian tomahawk was never lifted against a people who would have considered it unlawful to return the blow.



INTERVIEW BETWEEN WILLIAM PENN AND LORD BALTIMORE.

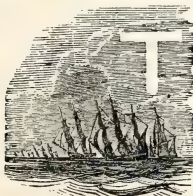


HIS next object was to found a capital for his new settlement. He chose a site upon a neck of land between the Schuylkill and Delaware, in a situation which appeared at once agreeable and healthy, abounding in water, and with convenient river communications. He gave to it the name of Philadelphia (brotherly love), under which it has become one of the most flourishing cities in the New World. Combining the taste for neatness and regularity characteristic of his people, with a love of rural nature, he planned a town composed of parallel streets, each a hundred feet broad, crossed by others also spacious, and some indicating by their very names, Vine, Mulberry, Chestnut, that the verdure of the country was still to enliven them. The purchasers of five thousand acres were to have a house in one of the two principal streets, with garden and orchard ; those of one thousand in the three next ; such

as were under one thousand acres, in the cross streets. In 1684, fifty villages, arranged in regular squares, had sprung up, on a similar plan, though on a smaller scale.

In December, 1682, Penn held an interview with Lord Baltimore at Maryland, for the purpose of adjusting the dispute concerning the boundary line of the new colony. After a tedious session, and a still more tedious correspondence, the lower counties of the Delaware, comprising the present state of that name, were yielded to Penn, while Maryland retained the eastern shore of the bay.

The second Assembly of Pennsylvania convened at Philadelphia in the spring of 1683. A charter of liberties was proposed by Penn and adopted, thus securing to the people all the privileges of a pure democracy. In the summer of 1684, the proprietor was obliged to return to England, and the government devolved on Thomas Lloyd as president, assisted by a council. The members of the latter body appear to have disagreed considerably among themselves, but the colony enjoyed tranquillity until 1691, when the lower counties separated from the main colony. They ever afterward remained distinct under the name of Delaware.



THE Pennsylvanians, who had owed every thing to James II., did not share the general joy at his abdication in 1688. The news was unwillingly believed; and the government, till September, 1789, was still administered in his name. This was carefully reported from New York: while in England, charges were brought against the proprietor as adhering to Popery, or at least strongly attached to the exiled house. William, after some hesitation, deprived him of his patent; and in April, 1693, Benjamin Fletcher, governor of New York, assumed authority also over Pennsylvania. The Assembly professed their willingness to obey, provided they were ruled in the usual manner, and by laws founded on letters-patent. But he intimated that they were much mistaken; that the change had been made on account of neglects and miscarriages; and that his majesty's mode of governing would be in direct opposition to that of Mr. Penn. It was even maintained that all the former laws had been abrogated, though a willingness was expressed to re-enact the greater number. The Assembly, however, insisted on their validity; and, while acknowledging the authority of the king, denied the charge of former

misgovernment. They resisted also the demands for money ; and thus a perpetual strife reigned between them and the governor, who declared that nothing would remedy the evil but annexation to New York ; and complained that, though his door was never shut, it was avoided, as if it had been treason to be seen in his company.

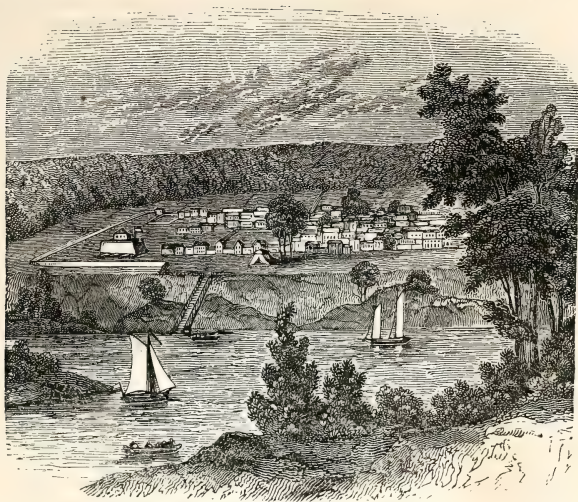


ENN, meantime, passed through many trials ; and, after being repeatedly acquitted, was arraigned on fresh charges. However, he was strongly supported by Locke, Rochester, and other friends ; and as nothing could be proved against him except a personal attachment to King James, without sharing his bigotry, William, in August, 1694, passed the patent for his restoration. As he could not go out in person, Markham was again appointed deputy. But the Assembly, though pleased to be rid of the royal government, did not show any greater deference to that of the proprietary.



IN 1699, Penn again visited the colony. His object seems to have been to obtain the consent of the people to a constitution which, granting them every reasonable franchise, might preserve to himself the ordinary powers of an executive head. After much difficulty and opposition, he had the address to carry his point. The original frame was surrendered, and a new one formed, based on the more common and approved principles of representative government. The Assembly, as elsewhere, was to have the power of originating bills ; but these were to require the assent of the proprietary. He obtained also the important privilege of naming the council, and had thus to contend with only one popular body instead of two.

Penn had come to the colony with the avowed intention of ending his days in it ; but he was prevented doing so in consequence of the introduction into parliament of a bill for the abolition of all proprietary governments. The measure was supported even by a considerable body of his own colonists. On reaching England, however, he was gratified to find that the project had been renounced and the bill withdrawn. He acquired considerable favour with Queen Anne ; but circumstances prevented his return to Pennsylvania. He died in 1718, leaving the government of the province to his sons, John, Thomas, and Richard. At the opening of the Revolutionary War, it was one of the principal colonies, and Philadelphia was become the metropolis of the British possessions.



SAVANNAH IN 1778.

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE CAROLINAS AND GEORGIA.



THE English were not so eager to settle the regions now called Carolina as they had been those of Virginia and New England. It will be remembered that the Spanish claim to that part of the Atlantic coast north of Florida was still good as far as Albemarle Sound; and the first intruders on its soil had learned by fatal experience that his Catholic majesty was not disposed to permit encroachments on his territory without at least an attempt to resist them. If we except a few settlers at Mansemond river, on the borders of Virginia, and some New

England emigrants, who had purchased from the Indians a listrict around Cape Fear, no Englishman had, as late as the year 1630, made any effort to settle south of Virginia. In that year Sir Robert Heath obtained a patent; but being unable to fulfil the conditions, it was declared forfeited.

The first productive grant of this territory was given by Charles II. on the 24th of March, 1663, and included under the name of Carolina the whole coast from the 36th degree north to the river San Matheo. Among the patentees were Monk, duke of Albemarle, Lord Clarendon, Lord Ashley Cooper, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, Lord Berkeley, and his brother Sir William, governor of Virginia. Drummond, a prudent and popular man, was the first governor. Settlements were made at Albemarle and Cape Fear, while the emigrants enjoyed political and personal immunities greater than those of the neighbouring colonies. In 1665 a new patent was obtained, extending their territory to the Pacific. New privileges were heaped upon the settlers; Lord Shaftesbury, assisted by the celebrated John Locke, drew up for them a constitution designed by the authors as a monument of legislative wisdom. It provided for two orders of nobility, divided the territory into counties, each containing four hundred and eighty thousand acres, with one landgrave, or higher noble, and two caciques to each county. Lords of manors and freeholders were likewise established; but the tenants could hold no political franchise, nor attain to higher rank. The proprietors were to be eight in number, possessing the whole judicial power, with the supreme direction of all the tribunals. Such a ponderous system of barons, caciques, lords, and manors, might have suited the feudal ages; but it was totally unfit for the government of a new colony, and, although strenuously supported by the proprietors, never went into operation. Until the people should be ripe for its establishment, a series of temporary laws was established, more appropriate to the condition of the new territory.

Meanwhile the people, having become dissatisfied with the administrator and collector of the revenue, rose in a body, put him in prison, and summoned a parliament of their own. Culpepper, their leader, went to England to plead their cause; but he was there arrested for high treason, and thrown into prison. Lord Shaftesbury, however, procured his acquittal. The proprietors then sent out as governor Seth Sothel; but his administration was so unpopular as to lead to deposition by the colonists, and subsequent trial before their



THE EARL OF CLARENDON

Assembly. He was banished for one year, and declared incapable of again holding the office of governor in Carolina.

The settlers now began to pay some attention to the more southern provinces. In 1670 they sent out a considerable body of emigrants under William Sayle, who was named governor. Dying soon after, he was succeeded by Sir John Yeamans, who was subsequently accused of sordid proceedings in carrying on what trade the youthful colony enjoyed. A season of dissatisfaction seems to have succeeded, which was terminated only by the appointment of Governor West, a man highly acceptable to the settlers, and who, during an administration of eight years, enjoyed almost unbounded popularity. Emigrants flocked to the territory, comprising among their number many of the valuable mechanics driven from France by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. Proposals were soon made for the founding of a city. These being favourably received by the people, a site was chosen on a high piece of ground above the Ashley river; but this was afterwards changed to another spot, called Oyster Point, at the junction of that stream with the Cooper. At the former place Old Charleston was founded in 1671, and the new city at the latter in 1680.



EST was succeeded in 1682 by Moreton and he, in 1686, by Colleton, brother to one of the proprietors, and endowed with the rank of landgrave. Under these men the spirit of faction, which had for some time slumbered, broke forth with violence, and, during several years, disputes of the most aggravated nature were carried on between the proprietors, the governor, and the colonists. Amid this ferment Seth Sothel suddenly made his appearance; and, by the influence of party, found no difficulty in gaining the office of his unpopular predecessor, and in calling a parliament which sanctioned all his proceedings. On hearing of this affair, the proprietors issued orders for his immediate recall, appointing Philip Ludwell as governor, with instructions to examine and report as to any real grievances. Locke's constitution, which here, as well as in the northern provinces, had given rise to the greatest disorder, was abrogated, and quiet in a general degree restored. But a new source of dissension was found in the numerous body of French Protestant refugees, who were regarded by the original "Church of England" settlers with feelings of national and religious aversion, and refused the rights of citizenship. At such treatment they were justly indignant; and disputes rose so high that the proprietors sent out one of their own body, John Archdale, a Quaker, with full power to investigate and redress grievances. Conducting himself with great prudence, he succeeded in greatly allaying the discontent of the Protestant settlers. After remaining a year he left as his successor Joseph Blake, who steadily pursued the same system; so that in a few years parties became reconciled, and the French were admitted to all the rights of citizenship. In 1700 Blake was succeeded by Moore, who, two years after, planned and conducted an expedition against St. Augustine, which brought disgrace upon himself and a heavy debt on the colony. In 1706, the Spaniards, by way of retaliation, appeared before Charleston, and summoned it to surrender. Governor Nathaniel Johnson returned an indignant defiance. The invaders sent on shore a small party, who were immediately cut off. Six small vessels, under Captain Rhett, then sailed against their armament, which fled in alarm. An additional force, both of ships and troops, was subsequently captured by the settlers.

A repose of several years followed this success, which ended by a war with the numerous Indian tribes of the vicinity. It broke out first with the Tuscaroras. This brave tribe made a furious attack on the Roanoke settlers, killing more than one hundred of their number, and laying waste part of the villages; but being met by Captain Barnwell, from South Carolina, with nine hundred and sixty men, they were totally annihilated as a nation, the remnant soon afterwards emigrating to the north, where they joined the Five Nations.



BUT a far more terrible struggle was now at hand. Instigated by the Spaniards, the Yamassees, Creeks, Cherokees, and other tribes between Cape Fear and the Gulf of Mexico, united in a grand confederacy to extirpate the English. They numbered six thousand warriors, but their preparations for a general massacre were enveloped in profound secrecy.

On the morning appointed, the work of death commenced in the vicinity of Port Royal, where ninety planters perished. Happily a vessel lay in the harbour, on which the people crowded, and were conveyed to Charleston. The Indians, collecting from all sides, advanced upon that town; two detachments, attempting to stop them, were drawn into an ambuscade, and suffered severely. But Governor Craven, having mustered twelve hundred men fit to bear arms, succeeded in stopping their progress; after which, having received a reinforcement from North Carolina, he resolved on becoming the assailant, and moved against the allied camp. A struggle, long and fierce, succeeded. The Indians, having stationed themselves in an irregular, tangled spot, admirably adapted to their mode of warfare, defended themselves with accustomed bravery. They were now, however, completely defeated, and forced to abandon the colony. This war was followed by a series of internal commotions, which lasted several years, and were ended only by the appointment of Sir Francis Nicholson governor, under a commission from the king. A great object, during his administration, was the suppression of piracy which, for a long period, had prevailed to an alarming extent in the Bahama and neighbouring islands. In 1729 the proprietors surrendered their rights to the crown, which gratified the colonists by the entire remission of their quit-rents.



GENERAL OGLETHORPE.

An event took place in 1694, which, though trivial in itself, was destined to lay the foundation of an important commercial product in the southern states. This was the introduction of rice. The captain of a Madagascar vessel touching at Carolina, presented the governor with a bag of this article, which, being distributed among the planters, was sown, and throve so remarkably as in a few years to become a staple commodity. Negro slavery was about the same time introduced.



IN 1728, General Oglethorpe, and other distinguished persons of England, presented a plan to government for the settlement of the large district between the Savannah and Alatamaha rivers, which had hitherto been claimed by Florida. This was to liberate from the jails all persons confined for debt, or minor offences, and transport them to the new territory, where, under the guidance of a committee of trustees, they might act as a defence to the more inland provinces. The scheme was favourably received, large sums were voted by opulent individuals for its execution; and in 1732, Oglethorpe, with one hundred and sixteen persons, sailed for the new settlement. In South Carolina his followers were most enthusiastically received. The

colony was named Georgia, in honour of the reigning king. On arriving there, Oglethorpe's first care was to conciliate the neighbouring Indians belonging to the powerful Creek race. His efforts being guided by sincerity and discretion, were crowned with success. The Creek king met him at the settlement since called Savannah, attended by fifty principal chiefs, and was subsequently induced to visit England, where he held an interview with George I. The colony rapidly increased. Augusta was founded on the upper Savannah, in 1734. In the same year two parties of emigrants arrived, numbering more than five hundred. One hundred and fifty Highlanders also joined the colony. In 1740, the trustees reported that 2,500 emigrants had been sent out, at an expense of eighty thousand pounds. Among the residents were the celebrated clergymen John and Charles Wesley. The colonists complained of labouring under disadvantages. Rum and slaves were both forbidden—a circumstance which caused them to look upon the Carolinas with peculiar envy. The lands were divided into small lots of twenty-five acres, and granted only on condition of military service, and descending to male heirs alone. Religious feuds were added to civil ones. The Wesleys were driven from the colony. For a short period Georgia appeared on the verge of civil war.



FFAIRS were rendered still farther critical by the Spanish war, which, after numerous petty aggressions, broke out in 1738. Oglethorpe determined to attack St. Augustine, the capital of Florida. Great preparations were made for this enterprise; Virginia and the Carolinas furnished a regiment, as well as £120,000 currency; and an Indian force undertook to assist. The

governor, who was thus enabled to make an invasion with two thousand men, reduced two successive forts; but the castle of St. Augustine itself was found too strongly fortified to allow a reasonable hope of reducing it unless by blockade. This he expected to accomplish by the aid of a strong flotilla, which came to co-operate with him. It proved, however, a very discouraging service for his undisciplined warriors; and the Indians, disgusted by an expression which escaped him, of horror at their cruelty, went off. The Highlanders, his best

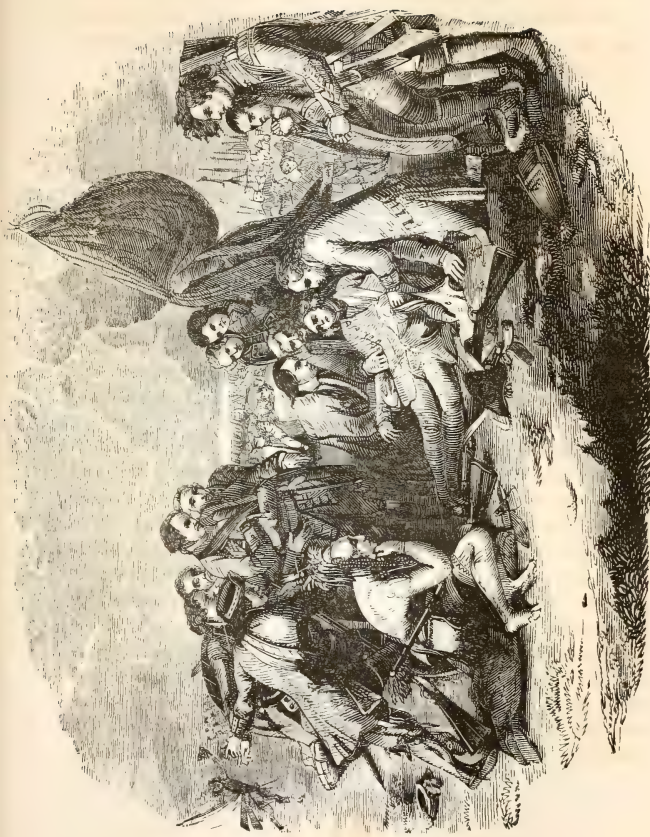
troops were surprised, and a number cut to pieces ; while the militia lost courage, broke the restraints of discipline, and deserted in great numbers. It being impossible to prevent the enemy from procuring a reinforcement and large supply of provisions, he was obliged to raise the siege, and return with his armament seriously shattered, and his reputation impaired.



THE Spaniards, two years after [1742,] attempted to retaliate ; and Monteano, governor of St. Augustine, with thirty-two vessels and three thousand men, advanced to attack Frederica. Oglethorpe's force was very inadequate, and the aid from the north both scanty and very slow in arriving ; yet he acted so as completely to redeem his military character. By skilfully using all the advantages of his situation, he kept the enemy at bay ; then by various stratagems conveyed such an exaggerated idea both of his actual force and expected reinforcements, that the Spanish ultimately abandoned the enterprise, without having made one serious attack.

Georgia was thus delivered from foreign dangers ; but she continued to suffer under her internal evils. The colonists complained that absurd regulations debarred them from rendering their productions available, and kept them in poverty. Numbers removed to South Carolina, where they were free from restraint ; and the Moravians, being called upon to take arms contrary to their principles, departed for Pennsylvania. Great efforts were made, as formerly in Virginia, to produce silk, but without any success. In 1752 the trustees relinquished their charge. Georgia became a royal colony, and the people were left at full liberty to use all the means, good and bad, of advancing themselves ; lands were held on any tenure that best pleased them ; negroes and rum were imported without restriction ; and a free intercourse was opened with the West Indies





DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE.



GENERAL WOLFE.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.



HITHERTO we have traced the history of each of the English colonies in America separately ; for, although occasionally we have seen them forming political combinations, yet, until the opening of the Seven Years' War, no object had been presented to them sufficiently great to cause a combination of their energies for its attainment. Such an object now appeared ; and from 1754, the year in which the French War commenced, the general

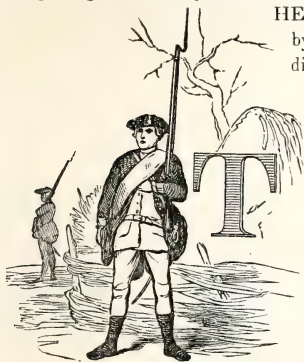
zation of our colonial history is the natural consequence of the progress of events.

The claim of France to the river St. Lawrence and the adjoining country, was founded on the early visits of Cartier. Settlement was first attempted by De la Roche, a Briton, who obtained from Henry IV. a patent of similarly extensive powers to those granted in England to Gilbert and Raleigh. "New France" was found to open into regions of vast extent; and though not of so luxurious an aspect as Virginia, yet affording great advantages to an enterprising nation, both by a lucrative fur trade, and valuable coast fisheries. Roche's experiment proved, however, a failure; and De Monts, who made a similar one, was equally unsuccessful.

The career of enterprise was next undertaken by Samuel Champlain, who became the father of New France, or Canada. After exploring the country, he built and fortified Quebec, allying himself with two powerful Indian tribes, the Hurons and Algonquins. This, however, involved him in war with the Iroquois, who were friendly to the English; and thus, at the outset, the new colony became involved in cruel and unsatisfactory wars. Champlain's charter was soon after abrogated, and another substituted, whose object was to convert New France into a colony of the first magnitude. This excited the jealousy of the English, who drove their rivals out of Acadia, and captured Quebec; but in 1632 both were restored to France by conventional agreement. Thirty years of prosperity succeeded, during which the settlers obtained from the Indians rumours of a mighty river to the west, larger than the St. Lawrence, and emptying into some unknown ocean. Supposing this to be the long-sought stream opening the way to the golden regions of China and India, Talon, the governor at that time, used every exertion to discover it. Two of the colonists, Joliet and Marquette, sailed in two little Indian barks, holding each three men, to explore the mysterious regions. Sailing onward, they ascertained that the river emptied into the Gulf of Mexico, when, fearful of falling into Spanish hands, they returned. In 1699, D'Iberville founded Louisiana. New Orleans was settled in 1717; and, in 1730, assumed so promising an aspect, that other settlements were extended up the Mississippi. Then it was that having control of the northern lakes, and the mouth of the Mississippi in the south, with considerable military strength in Quebec, Montreal, and other settlements, the French first conceived the grand scheme of extending a line of military posts along the Ohio and Mississippi

from Canada to Louisiana, thus restricting the English colonies to the territory east of the Alleghanies. As a commencement, they built Fort Duquesne, (named after the governor of Canada,) at the confluence of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, and commanding the communication from Montreal to New Orleans.

It will be remembered that the English king's charter had granted the land extending to the Pacific. The French settlements were, therefore, considered as encroachments, which the Atlantic colonists determined to resist. The territory around Fort Duquesne was claimed by a British society called the London Company, three of whose servants were taken by the French, and sent to a second fort on Presque Isle. Soon after the French built two other forts, thus completing the contemplated chain of fortresses.



THESE proceedings were considered by Lieutenant-Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, as so many acts of aggression. Accordingly, with the approbation of the Assembly, he despatched Major George Washington with a letter to the commandant of Fort Duquesne, ordering him to evacuate. In this expedition Washington suffered many hardships, and on one or two occasions came very near losing his life. Dinwiddie's request was refused.

Resolving to expel the aggressors by force, the Assembly raised a regiment, and placed it under the command of Washington. After defeating a body of the Indians at the Great Meadows, he encountered a strong force under De Villiers. Hastily retreating, he threw up Fort Necessity, at the Meadows, where he was attacked, July 4th, 1754. After fighting all day against five times his numbers, he capitulated on honourable terms, and was allowed to return to Virginia. On the same day, a convention of delegates at Albany, after having effected a treaty with the Five Nations, reported a plan of colonial union, to be governed by a general assembly of delegates, with a governor appointed by the crown. It was disapproved, however, by England and Massachusetts, and did not go into effect. A



WASHINGTON'S INTERVIEW WITH ST. PIERRE.

plan was finally adopted to carry on the war by British troops, aided by such soldiers as the colonists could raise.

Early in 1755, General Braddock arrived in Virginia with two regiments, designed as an expedition against Fort Duquesne. At his request a convention of the colonial governors assembled in Virginia and resolved on three expeditions—one against Fort Duquesne; the second, under Governor Shirley, against Niagara; and the third against Crown Point. While this session was being held, three thousand militia of Massachusetts invaded Nova Scotia, captured the military posts, and drove off the inhabitants.

Late in June, General Braddock, with twelve hundred picked troops, and ten pieces of artillery, marched for the Alleghany. With the most culpable pride, he rejected the representations of Washington and other provincial officers to scour the woods in advance; and thus, while marching in the European fashion, he permitted himself to be drawn into a narrow defile on the Monongahela, seven miles from the fort. Here, on the 8th of July, he was attacked by an unseen enemy securely posted amid the deep forests on each side. His men fought with stern, but useless bravery. Whole platoons sunk before the Indian rifle, while not a foe was in view; Braddock

was mortally wounded; every officer, except Washington, carried from the field; and rout, despair, and uproar, took the place of discipline. The provincials under Washington alone remained firm and to their praiseworthy efforts while covering the retreat and beating back the shouting foe, was owing the salvation of that wretched remnant. Seven hundred British, besides provincials, were killed and wounded—and sixty-four out of eighty-five officers. The whole army, including a reserve of eight hundred under General Dunbar, fled in disgraceful hurry to Philadelphia, leaving the frontier exposed to the incursions of the vindictive foe. The victors in this battle are supposed to have numbered nine hundred. Shirley's expedition against Niagara was also a complete failure.

At Crown Point a large party of General Johnson's troops was totally defeated by the Baron Dieskau, who subsequently made an attack upon the English camp. In this he was mortally wounded and captured, one thousand of his men killed or wounded, and his army driven away. After this success Johnson might have advanced with flattering prospects of success against Ticonderoga; but he spent the remainder of the campaign in idleness.

In the following spring, war was declared between France and England. The plan for this year's campaign was similar to that of 1755. Crown Point was to be attacked by ten thousand men, Niagara by six thousand, Duquesne by three thousand. While deliberations were going on as to which should be attacked first, Montcalm, successor to Dieskau, invested Oswego, stormed and took the works, made the whole garrison prisoners, and razed the fortifications to the ground. At this daring exploit the British were confounded, their grand schemes broken up, and the whole fall and summer spent in doing nothing.

At the close of the year a strong reinforcement of British troops arrived under Lord Loudoun; and the campaign of 1757 opened with high hopes of success. Loudoun's design was to improve on the errors of his predecessors, and make but one grand attack, of which Louisburg was the object. He sailed there with a great army, and finding the works stronger than had been expected, returned to New York. About the same time Montcalm descended from Canada to the works on Lake George, and captured Fort William Henry, one of the main dependencies of the English. While the garrison was marching out, a furious attack was made upon them by the hostile Indians, and no less than fifteen hundred men, women, and children



MASSACRE AT FORT WILLIAM HENRY

massacred. Whether Montcalm could have prevented this butchery or not, is unknown; but it has left an indelible stain upon his memory. This event dissipated the shadowy achievements which were to have been accomplished that year, and left the French complete masters of all the territory claimed by them at the beginning of the war.

This course of folly and imbecility was about drawing to a close. The king, compelled by popular indignation, appointed a new ministry, of whom the master spirit was William Pitt, afterwards Lord Chatham. He was probably the greatest war minister ever England produced. He was so popular in America, that in answer to a requisition for troops, three colonies raised in a little while fifteen thousand troops. At the opening of the campaign of 1758, General Abercrombie, successor to Loudoun, found himself at the head of fifty thousand men. Part was to reduce Louisbourg; part, Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and the remainder Fort Duquesne.

The first expedition numbered fourteen thousand men under General Amherst, and reached Louisbourg, June 2. The French garrison numbered three thousand men, under the Chevalier Drucourt. The siege was prosecuted with vigour for three weeks, when the town surrendered.

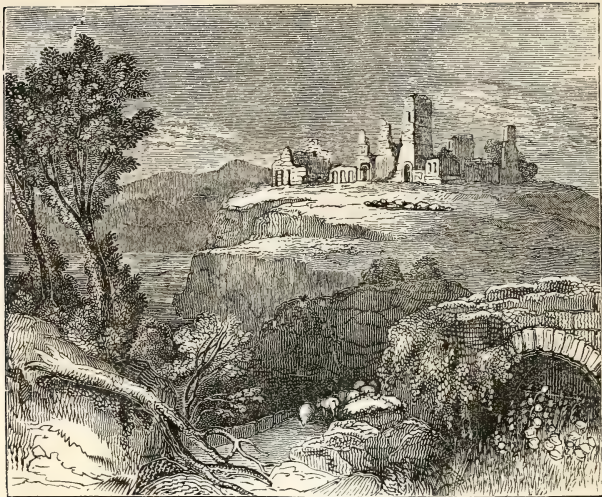
Abercrombie mustered his forces at Albany, and embarked on the George with fifteen thousand men and a formidable train of



ABERCROMBIE CROSSING LAKE GEORGE

artillery. On laying siege to Ticonderoga he led his troops upon a breastwork of trees, where, becoming entangled, they were fired upon by a perfectly secure enemy until two thousand of their number were killed or wounded. The designs upon the fort and Crown Point were then abandoned; but a detachment was sent against Fort Frontignac, which, being abandoned by the greater part of its garrison, surrendered. Circumstances gave to this last feat more importance than it could ever have acquired on the basis of military merit. It had hitherto formed the depot of Fort Duquesne, which, being now cut off from provisions, was abandoned by its garrison, who descended the Ohio in boats. At this unexpected turn of fortune, General Forbes, leader of the third expedition—who had been from July to November marching from Fort Cumberland, Va., to the Laurel Hills, sometimes at the rate of a mile a day—pushed rapidly forward, and [November 25] entered the abandoned works without resistance. The name was changed to Pittsburg. General Forbes died during his return to Philadelphia.

In the following year Pitt determined to attempt the conquest of Canada. The main attack was to be conducted by General Wolfe, a young officer who had distinguished himself before Louisbourg. General Amherst, who succeeded Abercrombie, after reducing Ticonderoga and Crown Point, was to join Wolfe at Quebec. Niagara



RUINS OF TICONDEROGA.

was to be reduced by General Prideaux. Ticonderoga was abandoned by its garrison on the appearance of the English army. The same thing happened at Crown Point. Fort Niagara was besieged by General Prideaux on the 6th July; but he being killed, the command devolved on Sir William Johnson, who gained a battle over the garrison in an open field chosen by themselves. After this they retired to their works, and on the 25th capitulated.

Meanwhile Wolfe embarked at Louisbourg with eight thousand men, and landing before Quebec offered General Montcalm battle. It was accepted, and the English were defeated. Not discouraged, Wolfe landed his men [September 3] at Point Levi, and determined to scale the heights of Abraham, hitherto considered inaccessible. On the following morning the astonished Montcalm beheld his enemy drawn up in battle array on the mountain. But with the courage of a noble nature, he determined to march out and give battle. The disposition of the armies was masterly, and the action worthy of the two greatest generals in America. At its commencement, Wolfe was



DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE

wounded in the wrist, and not long afterwards in the body; but he still cheered on his men until a third ball pierced his breast, and he was conveyed to the rear. Monckton, second in command, also fell. About this time the French centre was broken; and the Highlanders, rushing forward with drawn swords, completed the rout. When in the agonies of death Wolfe was told that the enemy were flying, he exclaimed—"I die content." Some time after, his gallant antagonist, Montcalm, also mortally wounded, expired, expressing his satisfaction that he "would not live to see the surrender of Quebec." The city immediately capitulated. Next year Montreal was taken, with all its dependencies; and henceforth Canada was a British province. This victory closed the war in America. The treaty of February 10, 1763, secured to the colonies and mother country all they had claimed before the war, together with the entire French possessions in the now United States, except Louisiana.



SAMUEL ADAMS

CHAPTER XXVI.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE REVOLUTION.



WHEN the Seven Years' War had closed, the people of the American colonies of Great Britain were full of loyalty and attachment to the mother country. But these dispositions were speedily changed by the ill-judged measures of the British ministry. Plans for taxing the colonies had been successively proposed to Walpole and Pitt; but those wary ministers declined the experiment. Grenville was bolder, and after causing duties to be imposed on several articles of import, succeeded in carrying the famous Stamp Act in March, 1765. This act, which imposed a tax on the paper used for notes of hand, bills of exchange, and other documents used in the ordinary transactions of business, was regarded by the colonies as unreasonable and tyrannical. It was received with a burst of indignation throughout the country. The colonial Assemblies generally



STAMP ACT RIOT

passed resolutions denouncing the act in strong terms. A congress of deputies, summoned by a resolution of the Massachusetts Assembly, met in New York, October, 1765, to consult on the grievances under which the colonies laboured, in consequence of the late enactments of the British Parliament. All the colonies except New Hampshire, Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia, were represented. A declaration of rights and grievances, a petition to the king, and a memorial to each house of parliament, firmly remonstrating against the oppressive acts of parliament, and earnestly entreating a redress of grievances, were voted, and the congress dissolved on the 25th of October.

The storm of popular indignation, however, still continued, and serious riots ensued in Boston and in other parts of the country, where the Stamp Act was attempted to be enforced by the officers of government. Resolutions and combinations against the importation and use of British manufactures followed these popular demonstrations.

Meantime Dr. Franklin, and the other American agents in London, aided by the Prime Minister Conway and William Pitt, were earnestly endeavouring to obtain a repeal of the Stamp Act.



RECEPTION OF THE NEWS OF THE REPEAL OF THE STAMP ACT.

To the furtherance of this measure, the ministers first introduced what they called the *Declaratory Act*. It pronounced that the king and parliament had a right to make laws to bind the colonies and people of America, subjects of the crown of Great Britain, in all cases whatsoever. As soon as this bill was passed, that for the repeal of the stamp act was introduced. After violent and protracted debates, in which Pitt participated, although he was dangerously sick, the bill at length passed the House of Commons, by a vote of 275 to 167; and notwithstanding a still more violent opposition, and the entry of two protests, its friends succeeded in getting it through the House of Lords. After receiving the king's approval, it became a law, March 19, 1766.

The passage of this bill was received with the liveliest demonstrations of joy by the inhabitants of London, where the church-bells were rung and the houses illuminated. In America, where the people could not even hope for such an event, the intelligence produced a transport of surprise, exultation, and gratitude. Thanks were voted by the legislatures to Lord Camden, Pitt, and others, who had befriended the colonial interests.

The burst of good feeling which followed this conciliatory measure was somewhat allayed by the declaratory act, in which the right of taxation was still asserted; and new acts of oppression soon re-awakened discontent. Indemnity for damage done by the riots was demanded; troops were ordered to be quartered on the citizens: an act imposing duties on glass, paper, pasteboard, white and red lead, painters' colours, and tea, was passed, (June 29, 1767,) and new regulations for collecting the revenue were rigorously enforced. Altercations between the colonial Assemblies and the royal governors

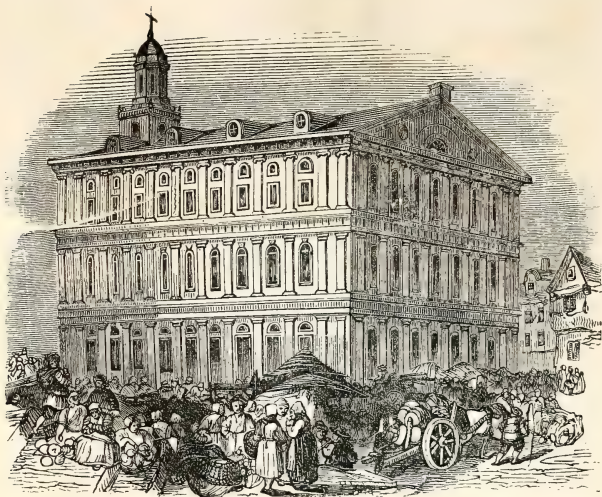


JOHN HANCOCK.

followed these measures of Townshend, the minister, who died in 1767, and was succeeded by Lord North.

The seizure at Boston of the sloop *Liberty*, owned by the popular merchant, John Hancock, led to a serious riot; and the quartering of troops, (November 10, 1767,) in the representatives' chamber, the court-house, and that cradle of liberty, Faneuil Hall, was regarded as the most terrible outrage which the citizens had ever endured.

Non-importation agreements were entered into by nearly all the colonies, on the one hand, and a proposition for trying American offenders in England, was entertained on the other; while the altercations between the royal governors and the colonial Assemblies were vigorously kept up. In Boston, the presence of the British troops was a perpetual source of irritation. On the 5th of March, 1770, a collision took place in King street now called State street, between the soldiers and citizens. The soldiers, being pelted with snow-balls and pieces of ice, called for the protection of a guard. Captain Preston's company, then on guard, came to their relief. A charge was ordered without effect. The mob dared the soldiers to fire, and on one of their number being actually felled with a club, they fired. Three men were killed, and several others wounded, of whom one afterwards died.



FANEUIL HALL.

These martyrs to the cause of liberty were buried with great pomp, and the Boston massacre was annually commemorated long after by a grand assemblage and the delivery of an exciting oration. The officer and soldiers, who had caused the death of the citizens, were defended on their trial by John Adams and Josiah Quincy. The captain and six men were acquitted, and two men were found guilty of manslaughter.

In Rhode Island, the destruction of the British armed schooner *Gaspee*, in consequence of her firing on a merchantman, was one of the bold acts which mark the spirit of the time. A reward of £500, together with a pardon to the informer, failed to shake the fidelity of any of the numerous party concerned in this affair.

The determination of the colonists to resist the introduction of tea sent out by the East India Company, led to the most serious riots. The permission to the company to export this article free of duty made it cheaper to the American consumer than before it had been



BOSTON MASSACRE.

made a source of revenue, so that in this instance the resistance was made to the *principle of taxation*. Cargoes were sent to New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, (South Carolina,) and Boston. The inhabitants of the cities of New York and Philadelphia sent the ships back to London, "and they sailed up the Thames to proclaim to all the nation, that New York and Pennsylvania would not be enslaved." The inhabitants of Charleston unloaded the tea and stored it in damp cellars, where it could not be used, and where it finally was all spoiled. The inhabitants of Boston tried every measure to send back the three tea ships which had arrived there, but without success. The agents of the company would not release the captains from their obligations; the custom-house officers refused them clearances, and the governor would not allow them to pass Castle William.

The vessels containing the tea lay for some days in the harbour, watched by a strong guard of citizens, who, from a numerous town-meeting, despatched the most peremptory commands to the ship-masters not to land their cargoes. At length, the popular rage could be restrained no longer, and the consignees, apprehending violence, took refuge in Castle William, while, on the 16th of December, an assemblage of men, dressed and painted like Mohawk Indians, boarded the vessels, and threw the tea into the dock. In the space of about two hours, the contents of three hundred and forty-two chests of tea, valued at £18,000 sterling, were thus destroyed.

This act led to the passage of the Boston Port Bill, (31st March

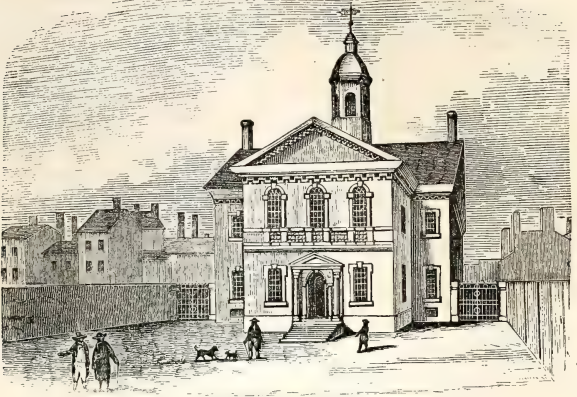


DESTRUCTION OF THE TEA IN BOSTON HARBOUR.

1774,) prohibiting the lading or unlading of goods and merchandize at Boston after the 1st day of June, until the return of obedience and the indemnification of the East India Company for the tea destroyed. To enforce the enactments of this bill, four ships of war were ordered to sail for the proscribed town. General Gage, commander-in-chief in America, was appointed Governor of Massachusetts Bay, in the room of Mr. Hutchinson; and he was authorized to remit forfeitures and grant pardons. He arrived on the 13th of May.

The effect of this stringent proceeding was exactly the reverse of what had been anticipated by the British ministry. Instead of dividing and intimidating the colonies, it united and emboldened them.

The necessity of a general congress was soon universally perceived, and the measure was gradually adopted by every colony, from New Hampshire to South Carolina. On the 4th of September, delegates from eleven colonies appeared at Philadelphia; and, the next day, the first continental congress was organized at Carpenter's Hall, in Chestnut street. On the 14th, members from North Carolina arrived, making twelve colonies that were represented. It was resolved that each colony should have one vote, whatever might be the number of its representatives. They made a declaration of rights; resolved on a address to the king, a memorial to the people of British



CARPENTERS' HALL.

America, and an address to the people of Great Britain. These papers had a great effect both in America and England. They inspired the people with confidence in their delegates; and their decency, firmness, and wisdom, caused a universal feeling of respect for the congress.

General Gage, in the mean time, was evidently anticipating a resort to arms. He seized all the deposits of powder and provision which he could reach in the neighbourhood of Boston, and began to fortify the Neck, which unites it to Roxbury. The representatives of the people of Massachusetts assembled in convention; remonstrated against these proceedings; appointed a committee to prepare a plan for the immediate defence of the province; gave orders for the enlistment of a number of the inhabitants to be in readiness, *at a minute's warning*, to appear in arms, and elected three general officers, Preble, Ward, and Pomeroy, to command these minute-men. At a subsequent session, in November, they took measures for arming the militia, and appointed two more officers, Prescott and Heath. They also secured the co-operation of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, in raising an army of twenty thousand men.

In Rhode Island and New Hampshire, the ordnance and ammunition were secured for the use of the people.

The British ministry, when apprised of these acts, disregarded the attempts of Chatham and Burke to have the grievances of the colonists removed, declared Massachusetts in a state of rebellion, and caused a bill to be passed restricting the colonial commerce and fisheries, while John Hancock and Samuel Adams, and a band of other leading spirits, were stimulating the colonies to the most determined resistance. Oppression and menaces of force on the one hand, and discontent and a determination to be free, or die in the cause of freedom on the other, were now speedily bringing affairs to a crisis.



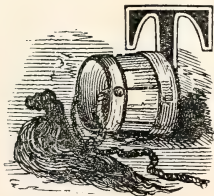
BRITISH NAVAL COSTUME, 1776



SIEGE OF BOSTON.

CHAPTER XXVII.

FIRST HOSTILITIES OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.



THE first serious collision between the colonists and the British troops arose from an expedition sent out from Boston by General Gage, to destroy some military stores deposited at Concord. For the execution of this design, he, on the night preceding the 19th of April, detached Lieutenant-Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, with eight hundred grenadiers and light infantry, who, at eleven o'clock, embarked in boats at the bottom of Boston Common, crossed Charles river, and having landed at Phipp's farm, in Cambridge, commenced a silent and expeditious march for Concord. Although measures had been taken to intercept any expresses that might be sent from Boston to alarm the country, yet some messengers from Dr. Warren eluded the British patrols, and gave the alarm, which was rapidly spread by church-bells, signal-guns, and volleys. On the arrival of



AFFAIR AT LEXINGTON.

the British troops at Lexington, six miles below Concord, they found about seventy men, belonging to the minute company of that town, on the parade, under arms. Major Pitcairn, who led the van, galloping up to them, called out, "Disperse, disperse, you rebels! throw down your arms, and disperse!" The sturdy yeomanry not instantly obeying his order, he advanced nearer, fired his pistol, flourished his sword, and ordered his soldiers to fire. The troops cheered, and immediately fired; several of the provincials fell, and the rest dispersed. The British continuing to discharge their muskets after the dispersion, a part of the fugitives stopped, and returned the fire. Eight Americans were killed, three or four of them by the first discharge of the British, the rest after they had left the parade. Several were also wounded.

The British now pressed forward to Concord, and destroyed the stores; but in their retreat they encountered the exasperated people who had risen in a mass. A severe conflict took place at Concord bridge. Their retreat towards Lexington was harassed by a galling fire from behind stone walls, trees, hillocks, and hedges. The provincial soldiers were excellent marksmen, and their superior know-



LORD PERCY.

ledge of the country enabled them to head off the British troops at every turn of the road. Thus harassed, they reached Lexington, where they were joined by Lord Percy, who, most opportunely for them, had arrived with nine hundred men, and two pieces of cannon. The enemy, now amounting to about eighteen hundred men, having halted an hour or two at Lexington, recommenced their march; but the attack from the provincials was simultaneously renewed, and an irregular yet very galling fire was kept up on each flank, as well as on the front and rear. The close firing threw the British into great confusion; but they kept up a retreating fire on the militia and minute-men. A little after sunset, the regulars reached Bunker's Hill, where, exhausted with excessive fatigue, they remained during the night, under the protection of the Somerset man-of-war, and the next morning went into Boston. If the Salem and Marblehead regiments had arrived in season to cut off their retreat, in all probability but few of the detachment would ever have reached Boston. Of the Americans engaged throughout the day, fifty were killed and thirty-four wounded. The British loss was sixty-five killed, one hundred and eighty wounded, and twenty-eight prisoners. To their wounded prisoners the Americans behaved with the utmost tenderness and humanity, and apprised Gage that he was at liberty to send the surgeons of his own army to minister to them.



COLONEL ALLEN CAPTURING TICONDEROGA

The affair of Lexington was the signal for war. The provincial congress of Massachusetts met the next day after the battle, and determined the number of men to be raised; fixed on the payment of the troops; voted an issue of paper money; drew up rules and regulations for an army; and all was done in a business-like manner.

The news of the battle caused a rush of volunteers towards the scene of action from the surrounding colonies; and twenty thousand men were soon assembled, forming a line of encampment from Roxbury to the river Mystic, holding the British army, under General Gage, besieged in Boston.

In Connecticut an expedition was set on foot for surprising the fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Forty volunteers proceeded to Castleton, where they met Colonel Ethan Allen with two hundred and thirty men.

Here they were all unexpectedly joined by Colonel Benedict Arnold, who meditated a similar project. He was admitted to act as auxiliary to Allen, who held the chief command. They proceeded on their expedition, and arrived on the night of the 9th of May on the shore of Lake Champlain, opposite to Ticonderoga. Allen and Arnold crossed with eighty-three men, and the two colonels entered the fort abreast, at break of day. All the garrison were asleep, ex-

cept one sentinel, whose piece missing fire, he attempted to escape into the fort; but the Americans rushed after him, and forming themselves into a hollow square, gave three loud huzzas, which instantly aroused the garrison. Some skirmishing with swords and bayonets ensued. De la Place, the commander, was required to surrender the fort. "By what authority?" he asked, with no unnatural surprise. "I demand it," replied Allen, "in the name of the Great Jehovah, and of the Continental Congress!" This extraordinary summons was instantly obeyed; and the fort, with its valuable stores and forty-nine prisoners, was surrendered without delay.

Colonel Seth Warner was then despatched to Crown Point; and he took possession of this place, in which a serjeant and twelve privates formed the whole of the garrison. A British sloop-of-war lying off St. Johns, at the northern end of Lake Champlain, was soon after captured by Arnold.

Thus the Americans, without the loss of a single man, acquired, by a bold and decisive stroke, two important posts, a great quantity of artillery and ammunition, and the command of Lake George and Lake Champlain.

In May, Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, arrived at Boston, with reinforcements for the besieged garrison. General Gage now offered pardon to all who would lay down their arms, except Samuel Adams and John Hancock; and he declared the province under martial law. In June, the colonial generals determined to occupy Bunker Hill, in Charlestown. On the evening of the 16th of June, Colonel Prescott marched from Cambridge for this purpose; but, by some mistake, he took ground on Breed's Hill, much nearer Boston, and within range of its cannon. By labouring diligently through the night, his men succeeded in raising a respectable redoubt, which was assailed at break of day by The Lively sloop-of-war, and a battery of six guns on Copp's Hill, at the north end of Boston. Undismayed by the fire, the provincial soldiers laboured at their intrenchments till the breastwork reached from the redoubt to the bottom of the hill near the Mystic. New-mown hay and wooden fences formed a part of their materials.

As the secure possession of Breed's Hill would render Boston untenable, General Gage detached Generals Howe and Pigot, at noon, with ten companies of grenadiers, ten of infantry, and some artillery, to dislodge the provincials. Landing at Morton's Point, Howe decided to wait for reinforcements, and at 3 o'clock moved to the



GENERAL WARREN.

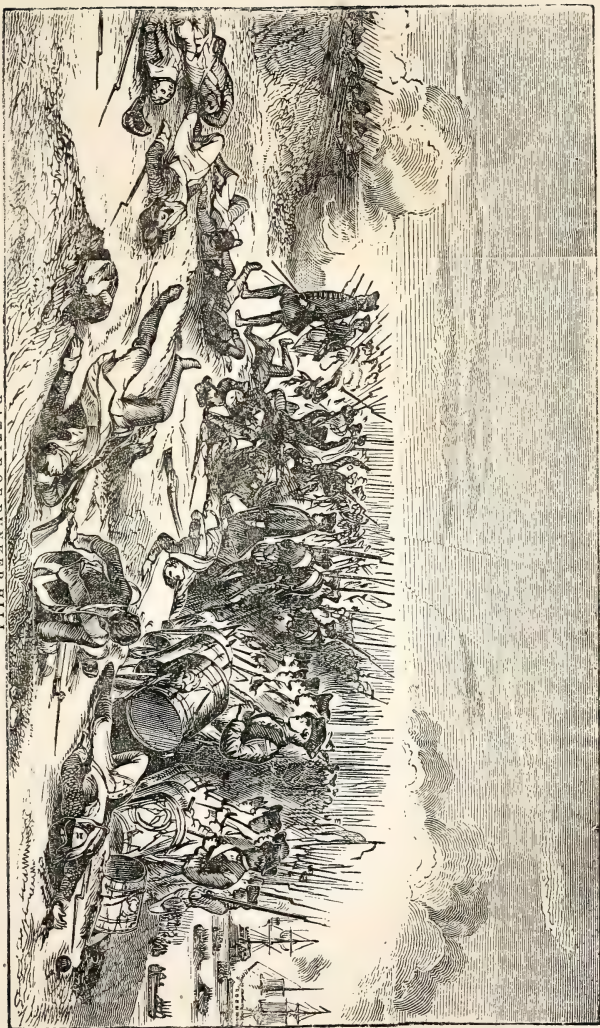
attack with three thousand men ; while the town of Charlestown being set on fire, added terrific grandeur to the approaching contest

The Americans, who had been reinforced by a second detachment under Generals Warren and Pomeroy, permitted the enemy to approach, till, according to the characteristic order of Putnam, they could see the whites of their eyes, and then poured in upon the advancing columns a tremendous fire of musketry, which prostrated whole platoons, and sent the enemy, broken and disordered, back to their landing-place.

By the exertions of the officers, they were again brought to the attack. The Americans again reserved their fire until the enemy were within five or six rods, when they gave it with deadly precision, and put them a second time to flight. General Clinton now arrived from Boston, and aided Howe in persuading the troops to march a third time to the attack.

But by this time the powder of the Americans began to fail, and

BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.



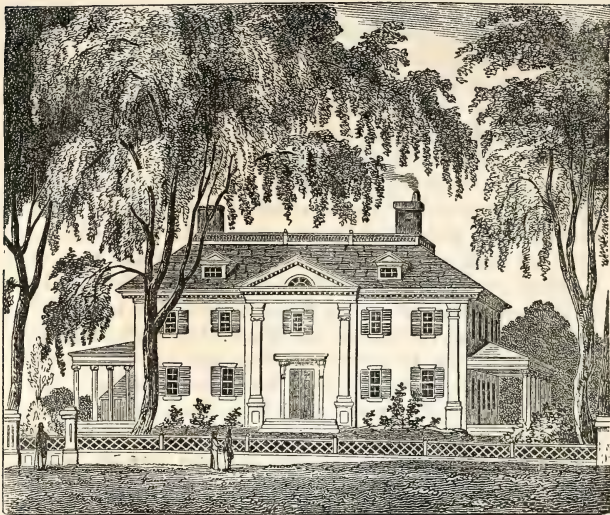
their fire slackened. The British brought some of their cannon to bear, which raked the inside of the breastwork from end to end; the fire from the ships, batteries, and field-artillery, was redoubled; and the redoubt, attacked on three sides at once, was carried at the point of the bayonet. The Americans, though a retreat was ordered, delayed, and made an obstinate resistance with the butts of their guns, until the assailants, who easily mounted the works, had half-filled the redoubt. Meanwhile the breastwork had been bravely defended against the light-infantry, who were mowed down in ranks by the close fire of the Americans; but the redoubt being lost, the breastwork was necessarily abandoned. The troops had now to make their way over Charlestown Neck, which was completely raked by the Glasgow man-of-war and two floating batteries; but by the skill and address of the officers, and especially of General Putnam, who commanded the rear, the retreat was effected with little loss. General Warren fell in the battle, fighting like a common soldier.

The New Hampshire troops, under Stark, Dearborn, and others, were in the battle, near the rail-fence. They were marching from their native state towards Cambridge, and came upon the battleground by their own impulses, having received no orders from the commander-in-chief. The British had three thousand men, the Americans fifteen hundred. The former lost one thousand and fifty-four killed and wounded, the latter one hundred and thirty-nine killed, and three hundred and fourteen wounded and missing. The moral effect of this battle was immense. It had been doubted whether the provincials would fight. That question was now definitively settled.

The British held and fortified Breed's Hill. The Americans maintained their original lines of investment, and held the enemy as closely besieged as before the battle.

A second continental congress assembled at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May, under the presidency of Peyton Randolph. They voted addresses to the king, the people of Canada, and the Assembly of Jamaica; they resolved that twenty thousand men should be raised and equipped for the common defence; and they chose George Washington for commander-in-chief. All this was done, and bills of credit emitted in the name of the **TWELVE UNITED COLONIES**. The Revolution was thus formally organized. Georgia soon after sent in her delegates, and the thirteen colonies were indissolubly united.

The battle of Bunker Hill (so called, although fought on Breed's



WASHINGTON'S HEAD-QUARTERS AT CAMBRIDGE.

Hill) was followed by active hostilities at sea. Privateers and vessels fitted out by Massachusetts and other colonies captured many merchantmen and transports,—aggressions which were retaliated by the burning of Falmouth, and the sacking of other defenceless towns on the coast.

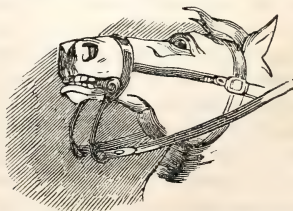
General Washington joined the army at Cambridge on the 2d of July. He found fifteen thousand men encamped around Boston, ill-armed, undisciplined, and disorderly. They were deficient in gunpowder; but the garrison of ten thousand men in Boston were well supplied with munitions of war. The terms of enlistment of many expired during the siege, and their numbers were at one time less than those of the British army. Active operations seemed impracticable; but on the 2d of March, 1776, and on the succeeding nights, a heavy bombardment was kept up on the British lines; and on the 4th, General Thomas, with a strong detachment, took possession of Dorchester Heights, and with the aid of fascines provided by General Ward, they succeeded in erecting works during the night



GENERAL WARD.

sufficient for their defence. Howe was astonished when he saw these works, and he determined to dislodge the Americans. A detachment of about two thousand troops fell down to the castle in transports; but a furious storm scattered them, and they were unable to proceed to the scene of action. The works were soon rendered nearly impracticable; and a council of war, held by the British, decided to evacuate the town as soon as possible. A fortnight afterwards the measure was effected; and at ten in the morning of the 17th of March, the royal troops and their adherents, who had lately held possession of Boston, were sailing away from its shores; and Washington triumphantly entered the city.

Thus terminated the siege of Boston. The British proceeded to Halifax, and Washington withdrew his forces to New York, which he rightly deemed would be the next point of attack.





GENERAL MONTGOMERY.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

. EXPEDITION TO CANADA.



IT was very natural for the colonists to expect that Canada, recently conquered and filled with descendants of the French, would readily join in the revolutionary movement directed against their ancient enemies, the British. Addresses had already been sent to them by Congress. An army under Generals Schuyler and Montgomery soon followed. On the 10th of September, 1775, one thousand men were landed at St. Johns, one hundred and fiftier

miles north of Ticonderoga ; but they soon retreated to Isle Aux Noix, where General Schuyler, being ill, left the army under command of Montgomery, who soon returned and laid siege to St. Johns. General Carleton advanced against him with eight hundred men, but was intercepted while attempting to cross the St. Lawrence, and driven back by Colonel Warner, with three hundred men. St. Johns then capitulated, and Montgomery advanced to Montreal. During the siege, Colonel Ethan Allen was captured and sent to England. Montgomery took Montreal and its garrison with eleven armed vessels ; but Sir Guy Carleton escaped to Quebec.

Meantime General Washington had despatched Arnold through the wilderness of Maine, with eleven hundred men, who left the camp at Cambridge on the 13th of September, and after enduring incredible hardships in their march, reached Point Levi, near Quebec, on the 9th of November ; but he had no boats for crossing the river, and was not in a condition to assault the garrison. He was joined by Montgomery on the 1st of December, and a whole month was spent in besieging the city, and finally in preparations for an assault, which took place on the 31st. Two feigned attacks were made on the upper town by Majors Brown and Livingston, whilst Montgomery and Arnold made two real attacks on the lower town. Montgomery, advancing along the St. Lawrence, at the head of his troops, at first met with success, and the battery was deserted by all the enemy except two or three persons, one of whom, in retiring, applied a slow-match to one of the guns, and fired it. This shot was fatal to Montgomery, and several other officers. Colonel Campbell, on whom the command devolved, precipitately retreated with the rest of the division.

Meantime, Arnold, with three hundred and fifty men, made an attack on the other side ; but he received a musket-ball in the leg, and was carried off to the camp. Captain Morgan, with a Virginia company of riflemen, pressed forward, and carried the battery, capturing the guard. Morgan formed his men ; but from the darkness of the night and his ignorance of the town, he was unable to proceed further. He was soon joined by Lieutenant-Colonel Green and other officers, and his numbers were increased to two hundred men. At daylight they were attacked by the garrison, and after sustaining the whole force of the enemy for three hours, they were compelled to surrender.

Arnold, upon whom the command now devolved, with but three



DEATH OF MONTGOMERY.

or four hundred men fit for duty, maintained a blockade of the city till February. But the misconduct of his soldiers defeated the main object of the expedition, which was to conciliate the people of Canada. Reinforcements arrived, and the siege was kept up till May, when the opening of the river brought in a British fleet, and Quebec was effectually relieved. General Thomas, who had superseded Arnold in the command, was obliged to raise the siege and retreat, leaving his baggage, artillery, stores, and a number of sick soldiers, whom Carleton treated with great humanity.

The remaining incidents of the expedition are uninteresting. The Americans were driven by the greatly superior force of the enemy, to Montreal, which Arnold was compelled to quit on the 15th of June, and retire to Crown Point.

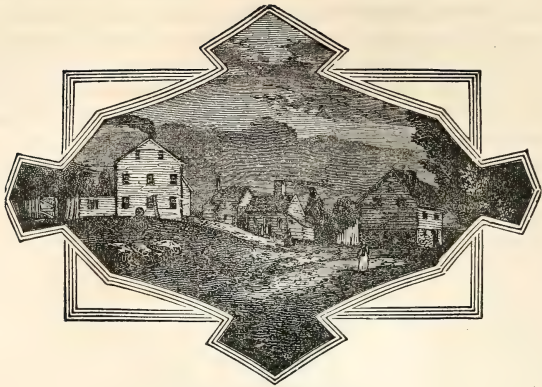
In the succeeding campaign, Carleton being determined to take Ticonderoga and Crown Point, first obtained possession of Lake Champlain, which was bravely but ineffectually defended by Arnold with a flotilla greatly inferior to that of the British. The action took place in October, 1776, and the defeat of Arnold was succeeded by the fall of Crown Point, which was taken by Carleton on the 15th

of October. The garrison retreated to Ticonderoga. This post, occupied by Gates and Schuyler, with a resolute garrison, Carleton did not think it prudent to attack ; but retired into winter quarters in Canada.

It is not improbable that with more prudent management on the part of Arnold, Quebec might have been taken by surprise on his first descent. But the rashness of this officer was at least equal to his undoubted courage. The most unfortunate circumstance attending the disastrous expedition against Canada, was the loss of the heroic General Montgomery, one of the best and bravest officers in the American army. His fall was universally lamented.



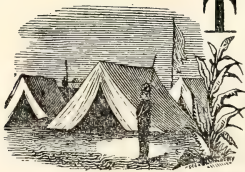
MONUMENT TO GENERAL MONTGOMERY, AT ST. PAUL'S CHURCH,
NEW YORK.



BATTLE GROUND OF TRENTON.

CHAPTER XXIX.

CAMPAIGN OF 1776.



THE object of Washington in proceeding to New York, after the siege of Boston was closed, was to anticipate the arrival of the British, as he was satisfied that the intended direction of the invading force was against that colony. This was the more dreaded, as the feeling in favour of the royal cause was there very strong, especially in the city; while Captain Parker still commanded the harbour, and Queen's County in Long Island had refused to send deputies to the provincial convention. The Congress had ordered a party of troops to enter that district, and seize the arms of all the royalists; but this injunction was afterwards withdrawn, a step much disapproved by Washington. He hesitated not to sanction the proposal of General Charles Lee, one of the most enterprising of the provincial leaders, who hastily raised a

body of troops in Connecticut, advanced by forced marches upon New York, and disregarding the remonstrances of the inhabitants, occupied the city, and began to erect fortifications on its different sides. After the evacuation of Boston, the commander-in-chief, as we have already stated, left it defended by a comparatively small force under Ward, and proceeded with the main army to New York, where he arrived on the 13th of April.

As some months would still elapse before the British could assemble their troops and open the general campaign, they determined to send an expedition immediately against the southern states, where the climate would oppose no obstacle, and a decisive blow might be struck with a smaller army. Botta censures this course as weakening their force by division. Had he, however, perused the official despatches, he would have seen that concentration formed the original plan of the campaign, and that this enterprise was merely to fill up the interval till the whole should be mustered. A chimerical hope was even cherished, that Clinton, the commander, might pursue a victorious career northwards, till he should join Howe at New York ; at all events, he was instructed to be there before the opening of the campaign. After touching at New York, he joined Governor Martin, near Cape Fear ; but the main force was to consist of seven regiments conveyed from England by Sir Peter Parker and Lord Cornwallis. Various contingencies delayed its arrival till the beginning of May ; and June came before the expedition reached Charleston, its destination. Its movements, and an intercepted letter, had by that time betrayed the design. The most active preparations were made, the principal inhabitants labouring in concert with the lower classes, aided by a numerous body of slaves. The defences were greatly strengthened, and a new fort, named in honour of its commander, Moultrie, erected on Sullivan's Island, separated by a narrow creek from a larger one named Long Island, commanded the entrance. Between five and six thousand men were assembled, nearly half of them regulars, and the chief command was taken by General Lee, who seemed to court every post of danger.

The expedition arrived on the 4th June, and the troops were landed on Long Island ; yet from various obstacles, the attack was not made till the 28th. The fleet comprised two ships of fifty guns, and six bearing from twenty to thirty ; but three of the latter, through the unskilfulness of the pilot, were entangled in the shoals, and could not be brought into action. The others, stationed before the fort.



SIR PETER PARKER.

opened a tremendous fire, which was kept up with the greatest energy and spirit. The defenders maintained their post with equal firmness ; and the walls, though low, were composed of a firm spongy palmetto wood, in which the balls sunk without shattering them. The garrison returned a cool, steady, and remarkably well directed fire, which did terrible execution ; the ships were rendered almost unmanageable, several of the chief officers fell, and the commodore was at one time left alone on his own deck. Clinton, from the land-side, did not co-operate, having unexpectedly found the creek impassable. He offered, by conveying over two battalions, to effect a diversion in favour of the naval commander ; but the latter, he complains, returned no answer, being too confident, and ambitious of doing the whole himself. The fleet finally moved off in a most shattered state, having lost about two hundred men, including Lord William Campbell and other officers of rank ; while the Americans had thirty-five killed and wounded. The whole affair was most fortunate, adding another to the series of successes gained by the Americans, and inspiring them with fresh courage.

During the course of this winter, a momentous design was in active progress, which had a very important issue. Several leading



DEFENCE OF FORT MOULTRIE.

men, particularly in New England, had, from the beginning, extended their views to the entire dissolution of their connection with Britain. Overpowered, however, by a majority of their own number, and by the force of public opinion, they did not openly acknowledge their designs, but watched the train of events. Down to 1775, the great body of the people seem to have entertained no wish, or even idea, of final separation; though in the course of that year some partial movements began in its favour. In May, a convention in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, declared for it, but the example was nowhere followed. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Virginia, and other royal colonies, being left without a government, authority was given to the people to establish one for themselves, limited to the continuance of the dispute with the mother country. Towards the close of the year, detached parties everywhere began openly to pronounce for independence; yet the general feeling was still strong against it. This sentiment was forcibly expressed by the Assemblies of New York and New Jersey, the latter declaring "their detestation of that horrid measure." Dr. Franklin, though not openly professing it, circulated articles of union and confederation; but they were coldly received, and not even sanctioned by Congress.

In spring, 1776, news was received that the petition of the Congress had been rejected; that they had been declared rebels; that large armies were preparing to subdue them, and that their whole commerce was utterly prohibited. Thenceforth a large majority of the leading men

formed the determined purpose of asserting independence. The Union, it appeared to them, could never be then restored on any footing, but that of complete subjugation.



GENERAL desire, accordingly, was now felt to carry out this measure in a decided form, before the expected military force, or the conciliatory commission, should arrive from Great Britain. The press was most actively employed in urging the measure, through gazettes, newspapers, and pamphlets. The essay named *Common Sense*, by Thomas

Paine, from its rough and homely shrewdness, produced a very powerful effect. As a preparative, Congress authorized the immediate suppression of royal jurisdiction in all the colonies, and the formation of governments emanating from the people; while they met the prohibition against their trade by throwing it open to the whole world, except Britain.

On the 22d April, the convention of North Carolina empowered their delegates to concur with the others in the establishment of independence. That of Virginia went farther, instructing theirs to propose it. Boston was now somewhat less forward, merely intimating, if Congress should think it necessary, their willing concurrence. Thus supported, Mr. Lee, a Virginia delegate, on the 7th June, 1776, submitted a resolution for dissolving all connection with Great Britain, and constituting the united colonies free and independent states. It was warmly debated from the 8th to the 10th, when it was carried, by a majority of one. As this was not a footing on which so mighty a change could be placed, the final decision was postponed till the 1st July; and during the interval, every possible engine was brought to act upon the dissentient colonies. The smaller states were threatened with exclusion from all the benefits and protection which might be derived from the proposed union. As the Assemblies of Pennsylvania and Maryland still refused their concurrence, conventions of the people were called, where majorities were at length obtained. Thus, on the 4th July, votes from all the colonies were procured in favour of the measure.

The Declaration of Independence, which had already been carefully prepared, was forthwith emitted. In this instrument Congress solemnly published and declared, that "these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, **FREE and INDEPENDENT STATES,**" and er

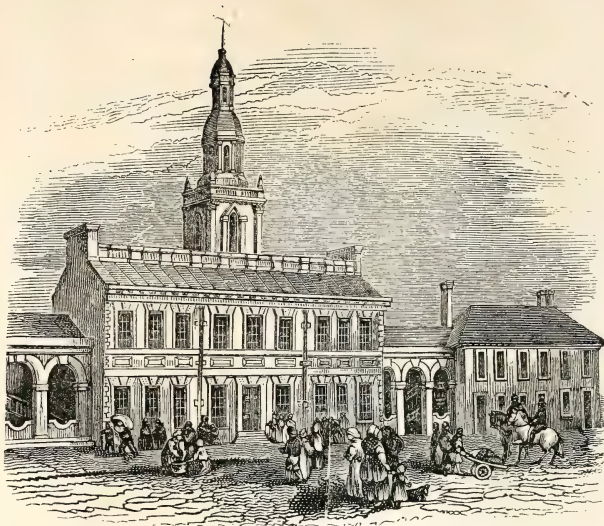
titled, as such, to carry on war, make peace, form alliances, regulate commerce, and discharge all other sovereign functions. This momentous deed was signed on the 2d August, 1776, by all the members then present.



IN the decisive posture which affairs had now assumed, Washington was actively endeavouring to organize the means of maintaining the contest. His most urgent representations to Congress upon the necessity of forming a permanent army had been disregarded; and he found himself at the head of a motley group, in which soldiers, enlisted only for a year half elapsed, were

mixed with militia whose services were to be still more temporary. In these circumstances, the restraints of discipline extended little beyond the general orders. In general, however, the soldiers were willing to fight, and had shown themselves capable both of forming and defending intrenchments. Washington made it a rule never to spare the spade; many were well skilled in the desultory use of the rifle, yet ill fitted for a field campaign with a large body of regular troops. Even of these ineffective soldiers there were, at the beginning of July, 1776, only seventeen thousand; and though they were raised in a few weeks to twenty-seven thousand, it was mostly by militia, numbers of whom were soon on the sick-list.

Meantime, General Howe was engaged in conveying his army to the scene of action. The abrupt departure from Boston had considerably deranged his plans, as all the supplies were directed toward that city, and some thus fell into the hands of the Americans. In June, however, the armament set sail; and he himself landed at Sandy Hook. He preferred, however, to land the troops on Staten, an island south of Long Island, much smaller, and separated by a narrow channel. On the 3d of July, he disembarked there without opposition, being greeted with warm assurances of welcome and support from the adjacent territories. On the 12th, he was joined by his brother, Lord Howe, who had been appointed commander of the fleet, and also joint commissioner to treat of pacification; while the ships, with the large reinforcements from Britain, began arriving in



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA, WHERE THE DECLARATION
OF INDEPENDENCE WAS SIGNED.

successive detachments. As operations were delayed till the whole were assembled, his lordship circulated a proclamation, offering full pardon to all who should return to their duty, and to any port or colony so acting, peace, protection, and free trade. No concession being mentioned as to the original grounds of dispute, Congress considered it so unsatisfactory that they studiously circulated it among the people. Lord Howe also attempted to open communications with Washington; but as he did not choose to address him in his letter under his title of general, his advances were politely declined.

The British designs had been well concealed, and the American commander remained long in anxious doubt whether the inroad was not to be made on the side of Canada. Considering New York, however, as the most probable and dangerous point, he had been diligently strengthening all its approaches. Having determined also



LORD HOWE

to make a stand for the defence of Long Island, he formed strong lines at Brooklyn, nearly opposite to the city, stationing the flower of his troops along a range of strongly fortified heights in front of the British quarters on Staten Island. Howe, meantime, waited till his whole force was mustered, when he could follow up without interruption any success he might obtain. About the middle of August, he had been joined by nearly all the reinforcements from Britain, and also by those from the south under Clinton and Cornwallis, which augmented his force to about thirty thousand men. He still, however, waited a few days on account of the intense heat, which, he dreaded, would injure the health of the troops.

At length, on the 22d August, the British army crossed the channel, and, covered by the guns of the fleet, landed on Long Island, taking post opposite to the range of heights occupied by the Americans. Washington, in the immediate view of this grand contest issued repeated addresses, strenuously encouraging his men, and



GENERAL HOWE.

seeking to inspire confidence. Howe, on viewing Washington's position, considered it too strong to be carried in front, but formed a plan for turning it. Before day, on the 27th, General Grant, with the Hessian troops under De Heister, attacked the American right wing, which, being connected with Brooklyn, was considered the most important, and which the Americans directed all their efforts to reinforce. These officers, in conjunction with the fleet, kept up a brisk and continued fire, tending to confirm this impression, yet avoiding to make any material advance. Meantime, during the night, a strong detachment of the English army, under Clinton and Cornwallis, made a wide circuit through a pass in the hills round the extreme American left. This had been insufficiently guarded by a mere party of observation, which was surprised and captured; so that Clinton reached almost unopposed the level plain behind the



GENERAL SULLIVAN.

position of the American army. About half-past eight, he appeared in their rear, while Grant and De Heister began pushing forward with their utmost vigour. No choice was then left but for the whole American army to regain the intrenched camp at Brooklyn, in reaching which they fell into the utmost confusion, and were pursued on both flanks with dreadful slaughter. Lord Stirling attempted to cover the retreat by an attack with a chosen corps upon Lord Cornwallis, but was surrounded and taken prisoner with all his detachment. The entire loss is stated by Howe at upwards of three thousand, including eleven hundred prisoners, among whom was General Sullivan. That of the British was only three hundred and sixty-seven killed, wounded, and taken.

On the 29th, Washington with great activity conveyed over during the night the whole army, with most of its artillery, in safety to New York.

The British commissioners, who showed an anxious desire for pacification, chose this occasion to send Sullivan, the captured general, to Congress, stating that they could not indeed as yet acknowledge its political character, but inviting some of its members to a conference. A deputation was sent, consisting of Adams, Franklin, and Rutledge—strenuous votaries of independence. Lord Howe re



THE RETREAT OF THE AMERICAN ARMY FROM LONG ISLAND

ceived them with great politeness; but his offers included merely, as usual, a general amnesty, and a promise to reconsider the obnoxious acts; while they declared a treaty inadmissible on any basis, except that of the states being acknowledged independent. On these terms there could not be the least approximation between the two parties.

General Howe now proceeded with measures for driving the Americans out of New York, which, as usual, he sought to effect rather by circuitous manœuvre than by direct assault. He prepared expeditions to ascend the opposite branches of the Hudson, which enclose New York Island, and, by landing above the city, oblige the Americans either to evacuate or be completely shut up within it. Washington, viewing with alarm these movements, called a council of officers, and recommended the immediate withdrawal of the troops; but strong objections being expressed, it was determined rather to leave there five thousand men, while the main body occupied a strong post at Kingsbridge, connecting the northern point of the island with the continent. As the British operations advanced, the perils attending this detached position became evident, so that by general consent the evacuation was determined upon, and the utmost

activity employed in removing the artillery and stores. On the 15th September, Clinton landed at Kipp's Bay, a position strongly fortified, and defended by eight regiments; but, dispirited by late disasters, they fled without attempting resistance, and Washington in vain strove to rally them. It was then necessary with the utmost haste to withdraw the troops, which was effected with the loss of only about three hundred prisoners; but they left behind them a large quantity of artillery, stores, and camp equipage, the want of which was most sensibly felt.

The British army now entered on the peaceable occupation of New York; yet it was disturbed by a distressing occurrence. On the night of the 20th or morning of the 21st September, a fire broke out, which continued to rage till a third of the city was consumed.

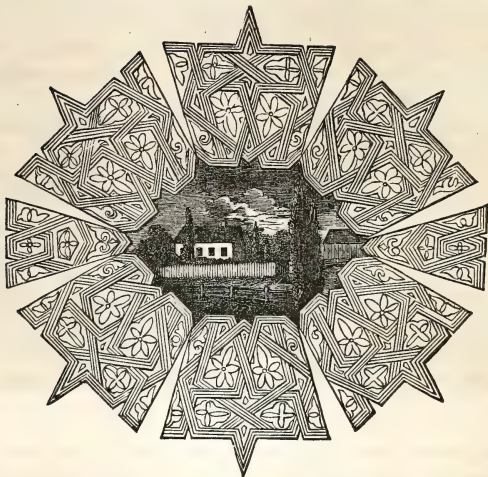
Washington now took post on Haarlem Heights, a range which crossed the island, and had been so carefully fortified that Howe did not venture an attack. His plan was to oblige the Americans to relinquish the post by landing on the eastern shore, thus threatening their rear and communication with New England. As a preliminary, three frigates were sent up the main stream of the Hudson; and notwithstanding the resistance made by Forts Washington and Lee, and by chevaux-de-frise sunk in the channel, they passed without injury. Before pushing into the interior, the British commander spent about three weeks,—seemingly a needless waste of time,—in fortifying New York. On the 12th October, having placed the flower of his army in flat-bottomed boats, he proceeded up the eastern channel, and through the pass of Hell-gate, to the point called Frog's Neck. Finding his advance here much obstructed, he re-embarked and landed higher up at Pell's Point, whence he advanced upon New Rochelle. Washington, meantime, had called a council of war, which decided that the position on New York Island was no longer secure; and the troops accordingly crossed at Kingsbridge, taking up a position extending thence eastward towards White Plains, which was fortified as well as time would admit. Howe, on coming up and reconnoitring, determined to attack first a detached corps of sixteen hundred men, under General McDougall, who, after a sharp but short conflict, were dislodged; but the general position was judged so strong as to make it advisable to wait for some reinforcements. These arrived, and the attack was preparing; when, during the night of the 31st, Washington retired to a range of heights five miles in his rear, which he had been employed in

strengthening. To the cautious view of the British commander this post appeared so formidable that he determined to change the seat of war to New Jersey, a less defensible territory, whither his antagonist would be obliged to follow him.

As a preliminary, he resolved to attack Fort Washington, a strong post still held by the Americans on New York Island. He determined to attempt the place by storm; and, on the 16th November, the British, in four divisions, advanced to the assault. In a few hours they had carried all the outworks, in which the chief strength consisted; and Magaw, the governor, felt himself obliged to capitulate. The prisoners amounted to two thousand eight hundred and eighteen, rendering the loss nearly as heavy as at the battle on Long Island; while the royal army had eight hundred killed and wounded. Cornwallis immediately landed with a strong force on the Jersey shore, when the Americans found it necessary, in great haste, to evacuate Fort Lee, opposite to Fort Washington. The garrison was saved, but the cannon, tents, and stores were left behind.

The American army was now pursued through New Jersey, a level country, which afforded no defensible position, and the time was not allowed to fortify any. After a retreat of three weeks, Washington only secured himself by crossing to the opposite side of the Delaware. The critical period was again approaching, when the terms for which the troops had been enlisted would expire. Exhausted and dispirited, they eagerly availed themselves of the liberty thus afforded. He had been urging in the strongest terms upon Congress the ruinous nature of the temporary system hitherto pursued, warning them that, without a permanent and well-organized army, the cause was lost. Seconded by the disastrous state of affairs, he had been empowered to raise first eighty-eight, and then sixteen more regular battalions; to give higher bounties and pay; and to act in other respects for six months as a military dictator. The men, however, were not yet raised, and present circumstances were little calculated to invite them into the service. In crossing the Delaware, he had with him only three thousand, independent of a detachment left at White Plains under General Lee. That officer, while reluctantly obeying the order to join the main force, and suspected to be meditating some schemes of his own, was surprised and made prisoner,—an event which threw additional gloom over the American prospects.

The course seemed now open before Howe to cross the Delaware



GENERAL LEE'S HEAD-QUARTERS AT BASKINRIDGE.

with the utmost possible expedition, and advance on Philadelphia. Washington entertained no doubt of this being his opponent's intention; and, though its accomplishment "would wound the heart of every virtuous American," declares himself wholly without the means of preventing it.

The campaign, thus far, had been a series of great and almost uninterrupted misfortunes. Still, though the American cause seemed reduced to the lowest ebb, Congress remained firm, announcing to their countrymen and to the powers of Europe a determination to adhere immutably to the Declaration of Independence. Washington felt the weight of the evils that pressed upon the cause; yet, with a bold and firm spirit, he watched every opportunity of retrieving it. He had collected about five or six thousand men, and prevailed upon some, whose service had expired, to remain for other six weeks. The English army, covering the Jerseys, was ranged along the Delaware from Trenton to Burlington, on which line there was reason to believe that no very strict watch would be kept. Washington determined on the bold plan of crossing the Delaware, and attacking the enemy in his own camp. The



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

troops being formed into three detachments, he, with the strongest, amounting to two thousand four hundred, crossed the river on the night of the 25th December, and from two opposite points attacked Trenton, then occupied by Colonel Rhalle with a strong body of Hessians. That officer, while hastily mustering his men, received a mortal wound; and the whole corps, surprised and surrounded, speedily surrendered. The two other detachments were arrested by severe cold and tempest, otherwise they might, it was hoped, have been equally successful, and a sweep made of the whole range of positions. Washington, however, had good reason to congratulate himself on carrying off nearly one thousand prisoners, with only ten of his own men killed and wounded,—a most unexpected event, which wonderfully revived the sinking spirits of his countrymen.

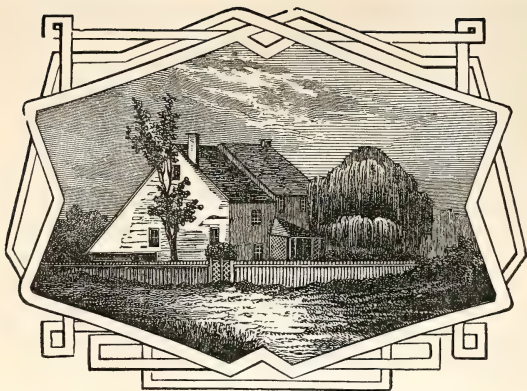
Washington now crossed the Delaware, and, with five thousand men, took post at Trenton; but Cornwallis, mustering all his force, advanced upon him; and, on the 2d January, 1777, the two armies were separated only by a creek. Washington saw that, by engaging here a superior army, he ran imminent hazard of being defeated, and driven over the Delaware with great disadvantage and loss. He formed a bold design: breaking up silently in the night, he moved round the British right, and advanced rapidly upon Brunswick, where their chief magazines were lodged. He might seemingly



nave succeeded, had he not encountered at Princeton three regiments coming up to join the main army. The Americans were at first driven back, and General Mercer killed ; but Washington, by extraordinary exertions, restored the action, separated his opponents, and obliged them to retreat in different directions. He then, however, saw advancing against him the van of Cornwallis, who, having received the alarm, hastened to frustrate his scheme ; and as he could not hazard a battle without the certainty of defeat, with the risk of having his retreat cut off, he prudently fell back. In this skirmish, the loss on both sides was nearly equal ; but the having made another bold offensive movement without disadvantage, heightened greatly the favourable impression produced by his former enterprise. The English general then repaired to Brunswick, and limited himself to a defensive line thence to Amboy, merely covering New York. Thus Washington had recovered nearly the whole of the Jerseys.



MONUMENT OF GEN. MERCER, AT LAUREL HILL CEMETERY, PHILADELPHIA.



WASHINGTON'S HEAD-QUARTERS AT BRANDYWINE.

CHAPTER XXX.

CAMPAIGN OF 1777, AND CONCLUSION OF THE TREATY WITH FRANCE.



MAYON the approach of the British towards Philadelphia, (December 12, 1776,) Congress had removed its sittings from that place to Baltimore. Washington's successes in New Jersey brought it back to Philadelphia in February, 1777. On the 27th of December, 1776, Congress conferred upon Washington powers for raising forces and conducting the war, which were nearly dictatorial.

Meantime, the British ministry, under the direction of Lord North, maintained their determination to enforce the unconditional submission of the colonies, while the opposition party in parliament were earnestly endeavouring to procure the adoption of conciliatory measures. With the majority of the British nation the war was popular; and no difficulty was found in obtaining from parliament the requisite supplies of men and money for carrying on the new campaign with vigour.

Before the opening of the campaign, Washington's whole force had been reduced to fifteen hundred men. Early in the year, however, fifteen hundred of the new troops would have been upon their march from Massachusetts; but the general court could not supply them with arms. This perplexity was of but a short continuance. A vessel arrived at Portsmouth, from France, with 11,987 stand of arms, 1000 barrels of powder, 11,000 gun-flints, and other munitions of war. Congress had been under a similar embarrassment with the Massachusetts general court, as to the procuring of supplies for Washington's army; but they obtained similar relief by the arrival of 10,000 stand of arms in another part of the United States.

Before the royal army took the field for the ensuing campaign, two enterprises were resolved upon for the destruction of the American stores, deposited at Peekskill, on the North River, and at Danbury, in Connecticut. For this purpose, a detachment of five hundred men, under Colonel Bird, was convoyed up the Hudson to Peekskill, by the *Brune* frigate. General McDougall, who commanded the post, having a weak garrison, fired the principal store-houses, and retreated to a pass through the highlands, three miles distant. Bird destroyed the greater part of the stores, and re-embarked on the same day.

In April, Governor Tryon, with a detachment of two thousand men, passed through the Sound, under a naval convoy; and landing between Fairfield and Norwalk, advanced to Danbury, on the afternoon of the 26th, the American troops having retired with a part of the stores and provisions. The enemy, on their arrival, began burning and destroying the remainder, together with eighteen houses and their contents.

On the approach of the British armament, the country was alarmed: and, early the next morning, General Sullivan, with about five hundred men, pursued the enemy, who had twenty-three miles to march. He was joined by Generals Arnold and Wooster, with about two hundred militia; and when the royal troops quitted Danbury on the 27th, the Americans marched after them. General Wooster was mortally wounded; and the Americans lost about twenty killed and forty wounded. Governor Tryon lost about four hundred men in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

On the 13th of April, General Cornwallis surprised the post at Roundbrook, and General Lincoln, who commanded the American force there, narrowly escaped capture, with the loss of sixty killed.



GENERAL WOOSTER.

wounded, and prisoners. The British destroyed the stores and evacuated the place. This was retaliated by a similar inroad on Sagg Harbour, made by Colonel Meigs, who destroyed a large amount of shipping, and captured ninety prisoners, without the loss of a man. On the 10th of July, Colonel Barton surprised and captured General Prescott, at his quarters in Rhode Island, which was then held by the British. Prescott was soon after exchanged for General Charles Lee.

While these desultory operations were going on, Washington was actively raising and organizing troops. Levies, however, went on very slowly, through the discouraging state of the cause and the rigour of the season; so that, at the opening of the campaign, he had not mustered quite eight thousand men. These, however, were in an improved state of discipline, bearing somewhat the aspect and character of a regular army; and during the winter months, he had strongly intrenched them in a position covering the route to Philadelphia. Howe considered it inexpedient to open the campaign till the middle of June. He then assumed a position in front of the American army, which he maintained six days; but, after having carefully reconnoitred their camp, considered it too strong for attack.

and fell back to his original station. His next manœuvre was to commence an apparently precipitate retreat, by which Washington was so far deceived, that he engaged in a hasty pursuit, when the royal troops, as soon as the enemy were close upon them, wheeled round and made a brisk attack. Lord Cornwallis pursued a detachment under Lord Stirling to a considerable distance ; but the American general, on seeing his error, exerted such activity in withdrawing his detachments, that they regained their intrenched position without very serious loss.

The British commander, having thus failed in his attempts to bring the Americans to action, conceived it impossible, in their face, to attempt the passage of so broad a river as the Delaware. There appeared no alternative but to embark his army, and, by a great circuit, land them at the head of the Chesapeake. The British force embarked on the 5th July, and did not reach its destination till the 24th August, when it was landed without opposition.

Washington had been carefully watching its movements, and recruiting his own force, which he had raised to fourteen thousand—not the most numerous, but the most efficient of any he had hitherto commanded. He determined, therefore, to risk a battle in defence of Philadelphia, though conscious that its issue must be very doubtful ; but otherwise the expectations of the country would be disappointed, and a discouragement ensue worse than defeat. The only considerable river on the route was the Brandywine, along whose high banks he drew up his army, erecting batteries and intrenchments for the defence of the principal fords. Howe's advance to this point was obstructed only by skirmishes with his advanced guard ; yet he did not reach it till the 11th September. Determining then upon an attack, he made his arrangements with skill and judgment. Knyphausen, with the Hessians, attacked the American front, driving them across the river, with apparently vigorous attempts to follow, yet avoiding any actual advance. Meantime, a strong division under Cornwallis, accompanied by Howe himself, made a circuit of seventeen miles to pass by the upper fords. Washington had received some intimation of this movement, but, distracted by opposite reports, did not sufficiently provide against it. Cornwallis reached the right of the American army before it had time to form, and, by a vigorous attack, he completely broke and drove them before him. Knyphausen, as soon as he heard this firing, pushed forward with his whole force, when the American centre, already

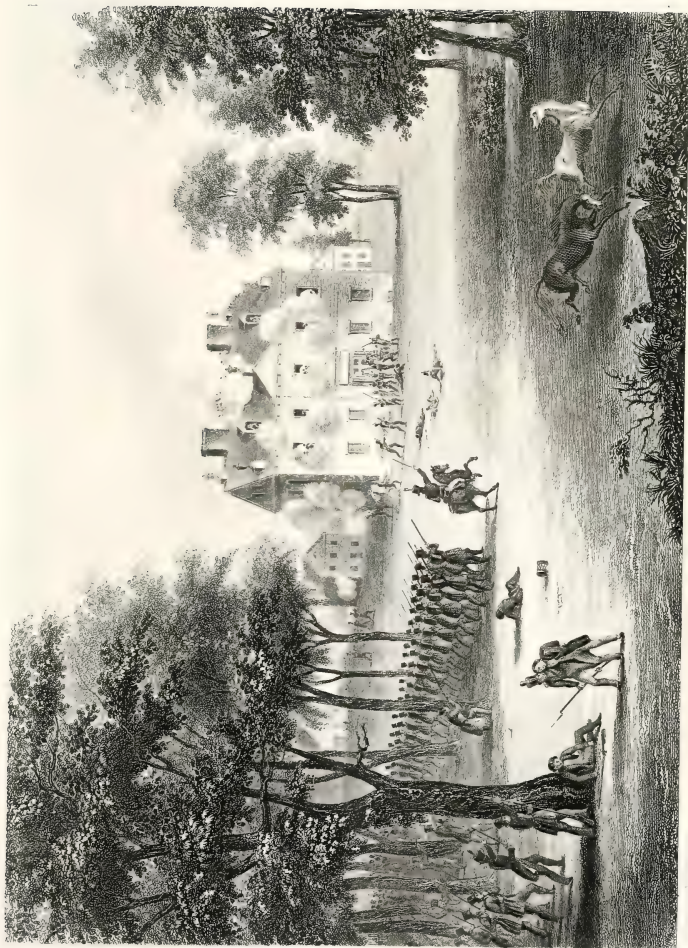


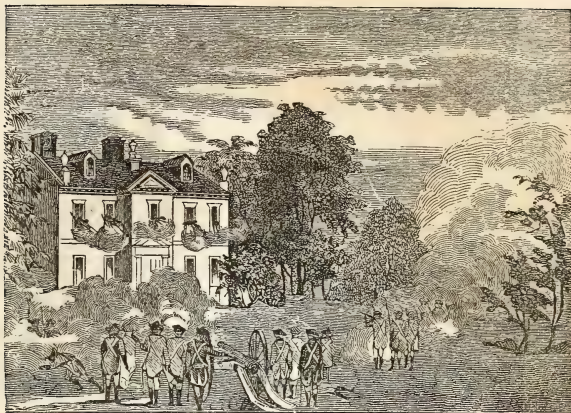
BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE.

alarmed by the disaster of its right, gave way at every point. After some vain attempts by Greene to cover the retreat, the whole army retreated, losing nine hundred killed and wounded, and four hundred prisoners.

The American general soon re-assembled his defeated army, and though slowly retreating, did not give up all hopes of saving Philadelphia. He was even about again to engage the enemy, when a violent storm, continued during a whole day and night, prevented the conflict and rendered his ammunition useless. Still it was only by skilful manœuvres that his opponent succeeded in entering the capital, and obliging him to retreat beyond it. Congress, who had returned thither, removed first to Lancaster and then to Yorktown.

Thus established in Philadelphia, Howe pushed forward the main body of his force to Germantown. A large part, however, was employed in reducing a chain of forts and batteries, which the Americans had erected on the Lower Delaware, interrupting the direct communication with the sea, where Admiral Lord Howe, after landing the troops at the head of the Chesapeake, had brought round the fleet. Washington, having received some reinforcements, determined to take advantage of this divided state of the army by a sudden attack on the portion stationed at Germantown. At seven o'clock in the evening of the 3d October, his troops advanced in four divisions, and, having marched fourteen miles, at daybreak took the British completely by surprise. For some time he carried all before him; but he was arrested by a large stone building, the residence of Mr. Chew, obstinately defended by six companies, by which he was

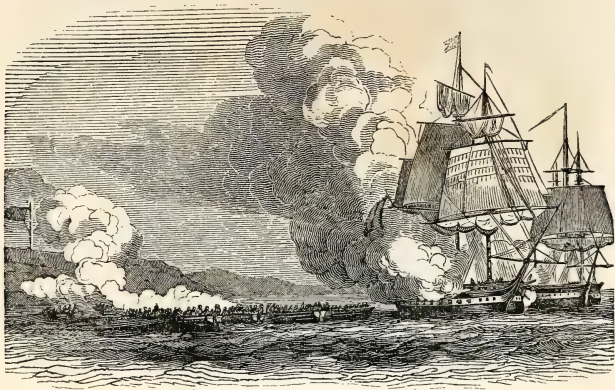




BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN.

delayed, having stopped to reduce it. On the opposing force being fully drawn forth, he was obliged to retire with the loss of upwards of a thousand in killed, wounded, and prisoners. Notwithstanding this unfortunate issue, a favourable impression of his resources was conveyed by his resuming the offensive so soon after the defeat at Brandywine.

The British troops were now employed in reducing the defences of the Delaware. In attacking the fort of Red Bank, a detachment under Count Donop, a gallant German officer, was repulsed with the loss of about four hundred men, and the commander mortally wounded. It was afterwards relinquished on the approach of a superior force ; but November had nearly closed before the passage for the fleet was completely cleared. Howe then, on the 4th December, marched out with the view of again bringing the American general to battle. The latter, having received four thousand additional troops from the north, had taken up a position at Whitemarsh, about fourteen miles from Philadelphia, which he considered so strong that his letters express a desire of being there attacked ; but the English general, upon a careful survey, declined the engagement, and, after some days' skirmishing, fell back upon the capital. The attention of Washington was then anxiously directed to the choice of winter



BATTLE OF RED BANK

quarters. After much hesitation, he fixed upon Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill, a very wild and bare spot, but well fitted for straitening the English position, and overawing the inhabitants, many of whom were disaffected. The troops laboured under a scarcity of provisions, and still more of clothes and shoes ; so that their marches were marked by tracks of blood from their wounded feet. The country people were indisposed to supply goods, and set very little value on the paper certificates offered in return ; but Washington on one occasion only would agree to a compulsory requisition. The encampment consisted of rude log-huts, erected by the soldiers, in one of which twelve were lodged. Their sufferings during the winter were most intense, and their endurance is highly creditable to their own fortitude, and the persuasive influence of their distinguished commander.

Howe had now made two successful campaigns ; yet his reports to the home authorities, as to the prospects of conquering America, were by no means flattering. He occupied indeed New York and Philadelphia, with a certain territory round them ; but the American army was still unbroken, and the determination of Congress as firm as ever.



WASHINGTON'S HEAD-QUARTERS AT VALLEY FORGE.

We have already noticed that the American expedition against Canada had been signally disastrous. After being severely repulsed at Quebec, they had, in the course of December, 1776, been compelled entirely to evacuate the province. The plan was then formed to send from that country a strong British force, which, penetrating across the back settlements of New York, might form a junction with Howe, and second his operations. The scheme, which was owned by Lord Germaine, had a plausible appearance; yet it must be admitted that armies have rarely succeeded in finding their way to each other from opposite and distant quarters, with great and unknown obstacles intervening. The command was bestowed on General Burgoyne; but his superseding Carleton, who had highly distinguished himself in the defence of Canada, was by no means popular.

About the middle of June, 1777, Burgoyne began his march, with six thousand seven hundred British and Germans, to which he added two hundred and fifty Canadians and four hundred Indians. His first movement was against Crown Point and Ticonderoga, considered the barriers of the Union on that frontier. These forts, which the Americans so fortunately acquired at the beginning of the contest, had been enlarged and strengthened, and were now garrisoned by above three thousand men. When, however, on the 5th July, the works were nearly invested, General St. Clair called a council of officers, who decided that the force, being mostly militia, was insufficient for their defence. A retreat was therefore effected during the night, the

baggage and stores being embarked upon Lake George. As soon as morning betrayed this movement, a vigorous pursuit was commenced, several detachments were cut off, and the flotilla on the lake destroyed; while the American forces, greatly reduced in numbers, retreated to Fort Edward, on the Hudson.



HIS triumphant opening filled the British with exultation; but they soon encountered great and unforeseen obstacles. The country, wholly intersected with creeks and marshes, required a constant alternation of land and water conveyance, which the Americans rendered more difficult by felling large trees and laying them across the paths. It was necessary to construct forty bridges, one of them two miles in extent, while the batteaux had to be dragged from creek to creek by ten or twelve oxen. The interval between 30th July and 15th August was thus spent in an advance of only eighteen miles. The inhabitants were animated with a strong spirit of independence, and eminently fitted for desultory warfare. The "Green mountain boys," who roamed and hunted over that lofty branch of the Alleghany, poured down in large bodies, and with rifles all but unerring, proved as formidable in this wild region as the best trained regulars. The Indians did not yield services equal to the odium which their employment excited. This, however, was lost sight of; and though Burgoyne used the utmost efforts to tame their savage spirit, it often broke out with violence. Two of them were employed to escort Miss Macrea, a young lady of great personal beauty, to the camp, where she was to be married to an officer. On the way they quarrelled about the expected reward; when one of them, roused to fury, and resolved at all events to disappoint his rival, struck her dead with his tomahawk. This tragical event excited a strong sensation throughout the region, wholly to the disadvantage of the British cause.

Burgoyne being now hard pressed for provisions and means of transport, and learning that there was a large supply at Bennington in Vermont, sent thither Colonel Baum, with six hundred Germans. The independents, however, mustered in unexpected numbers and were reinforced by General Stark, who was leading a corps from New Hampshire to aid the northern army. Baum was mortally wounded, and his party totally dispersed. As he had given notice of the threatened resistance, Colonel Breyman, with five hundred men, was sent to his aid, but did not arrive till all was over. He



MURDER OF MISS MAOREA

was himself briskly attacked ; and, though at first he maintained his ground, was at length obliged to retreat with the loss of two cannon. Burgoyne heard also of the fate of an expedition of one thousand men under Colonel St. Leger, destined to cross Lake Ontario, capture Fort Stanwix, and, ascending the Mohawk, reinforce the principal corps. Here again the error of divided movements and proposed meeting from distant quarters had been repeated. That officer found the place more strongly defended than he expected ; the Indians, who composed nearly half his force, were seized with a panic ; and he was obliged to fall back, abandoning even his stores.

Burgoyne now felt the difficulties of his situation daily thickening around him. General Schuyler, after successfully commencing the campaign, had been superseded, and General Gates had been sent to take the command of the Americans, bringing a body of regulars, who, with the numerous volunteers and militia, now formed an army



BATTLE OF BENNINGTON

of thirteen thousand men, with habits eminently fitted for this desultory warfare. Considerations purely military would have dictated a return into Canada, while yet possible; but the English general had to consider the dishonour of the British arms by a retreat before this undisciplined foe; the strict injunctions laid upon him to advance on Albany, where he was taught to expect that Howe would be waiting for his junction, while otherwise Gates might wheel round, and augment the force acting against that commander. He had therefore strong motives for his determination to advance at whatever cost. It was necessary, however, to give up his communication with Ticonderoga and the lakes, having no force adequate to maintain the necessary chain of posts. Resolving to push forward and cut his way through the American troops to Albany, he led his army briskly, in several columns, along the roads leading thither, disposing them so as to cover his artillery and baggage. Gates determined upon re-



GENERAL SCHUYLER.

isting this movement by a general attack. He commenced it at Stillwater, about noon of the 19th September, and maintained the contest very obstinately till dusk, when the Americans retired within their lines. The energy with which they had maintained their ground, and the loss of six hundred men sustained by the already reduced British force, gave this affair the character of a triumph; while it heightened the gloom which surrounded Burgoyne, who now determined to pause, and fortify himself in his present position. On the 3d October, fifteen hundred men, sent out to forage and reconnoitre, rashly advanced to Bemis's Heights, within half a mile of the American intrenchments, when the daring Arnold instantly sallied out, attacked, and drove them back to their camp. The whole American army then followed and commenced a most furious assault on the lines. From the British quarter they were repulsed; but the German intrenchments were carried, two hundred prisoners taken, and Brayman with several leading officers killed or wounded. After this disaster Burgoyne was compelled to fall back upon Saratoga.

Burgoyne had been impelled forward by the belief that Howe with



ARNOLD AT BEMIS'S HEIGHTS.

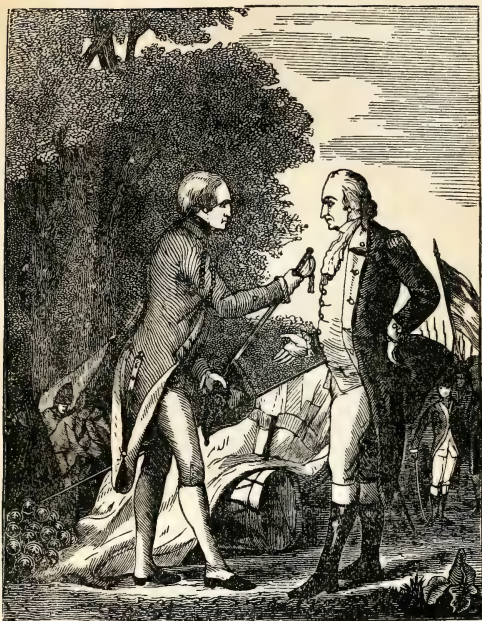
his whole army was waiting for him on the Hudson, and probably at Albany; and having been kept ignorant of that commander's total change of destination, while his attempts at communication were interrupted by the Americans, he remained still in the dark on this subject. A letter from him, however, reached New York, where Clinton had been left with a force barely sufficient to maintain the position, and without any instructions to co-operate with Burgoyne, so that the intelligence from that general, though so fully to be expected, seems to have fallen upon him like a thunderbolt. Being an energetic and active officer, he assembled three thousand men, and began a brisk movement up the Hudson. Meantime, the forts of Canton and Montgomery, which, on opposite banks, defended the navigation, were carried, sixty-seven cannon taken, two frigates and two galleys burned, by detachments sent up the river by General Clinton. Tryon destroyed barracks fitted to accommodate fifteen hundred men; and Vaughan incurred well-merited reproach by reducing to ashes the town of Esopus. Though General Gates



BURGOYNE'S RETREAT UP THE HUDSON.

observed these movements, he wisely forbore to weaken his army by detachments against this corps, which failed in every attempt even to open a communication with the northern army.

Burgoyne now felt that his affairs had reached a fatal crisis. The Americans held and strongly guarded all the posts in the rear, and had destroyed the flotilla on Lake George; while in front they had an army superior to his own in number, and in such warfare not much less efficient. A movement in either direction must therefore be followed by a series of incessant and harassing attacks, destroying his army in detail. A council of war was called, and the conclusion formed, that no option was left but the deeply mortifying one of opening a negotiation for surrender. General Gates's first demand was, that the whole force should ground their arms and become prisoners of war; but Burgoyne, with all his officers, agreed in the determination to brave every extremity rather than submit to such terms. Gates, feeling the importance of time, agreed, after some discussion, to grant the honours of war, and a free passage to Britain, on condition of their not serving again in North America



SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE

during the present contest. These conditions, so far as related to him, were honourably, and even courteously, fulfilled; but Congress sought a pretext for evading the contract to convey the troops to Britain. The general warned them, that none could be found in their own observance of the convention, which had been strictly honourable. Burgoyne, however, when complaining of the treatment which his men experienced at Boston, used the rash expression, that he considered the convention as thereby violated; whence they inferred, that on returning home, he would represent his government as absolved from the engagement against their serving in America. They demanded lists of the men's names, which was perfectly reasonable, but was considered by Burgoyne as an impeachment on British honour. In short, they determined not to fulfil the con



SURRENDER OF GEN. BURGoyNE TO GEN. GATES 1777



GENERAL BURGoyNE.

vention,—a course which Washington is said to have decidedly disapproved.

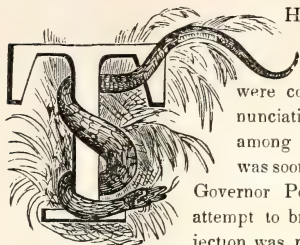
News of Burgoyne's defeat arrived in England, November, 1777, while parliament were sitting; and the effect may be easily conceived. The opposition, justifying the conduct of the commanders, threw the whole blame upon ministers. Chatham declared the expedition a most wild, uncombined, mad project; and Fox said that ten thousand men had been destroyed by the wilful ignorance and incapacity of Lord Germaine. Ministers, on the other hand, contended that every thing depending upon them had been done; large armies had been sent, and most amply supplied; and, before being condemned, they were entitled at least to a full inquiry. Lord North protested, as on former occasions, his willingness to lay down office if he could thereby hope to restore peace; but seeing no prospect of this, he considered himself bound to remain at the helm. Lord Chatham had moved for a cessation of hostilities, which was negatived; but committees were named in each house for an inquiry into the state of the nation, the result of which was to be taken into consideration in the beginning of February, 1778. Ministers proposed and carried, though with considerable opposition, an adjournment till the 20th January. The warlike spirit of the nation had been gradually subsiding in cons:



LORD NORTH.

quence of the lengthened contest, and the little prospect of any decisive success ; so that the first accounts of Burgoyne's catastrophe produced deep despondence, and a general call for peace. In the course of the recess, however, a very decided reaction took place, excited mainly, we imagine, by the prevailing belief, that France was about to join America ; for David Hartley warned his friend Dr. Franklin, that the English would "fight for a straw with their last shilling and their last man," rather than be dictated to by that power. Manchester, Liverpool, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, came forward to supply regiments ; six battalions were raised in the Scottish Highlands ; eleven companies in Wales. The voluntary levies thus effected before the meeting of parliament, amounted to fifteen thousand men. The opposition exclaimed against this raising of troops without consent or knowledge of parliament ; but ministers had little dread of this charge, and boasted of the result as decisively expressing the national opinion in their favour. Mr. Fox and the Duke of Richmond made motions that no troops should be sent out of the kingdom, which were negatived, but not by the usual large majorities : the former only by 259 to 165 : the last by 91 to 34.

Soon after the meeting of parliament, however, Lord North brought forward a most extensive scheme of conciliation, embracing indeed every demand which had originally been made by the colonists. The right of taxation without their own consent was to be renounced; the violated constitutions were to be restored; every act since 1763 was to be abrogated, excepting such as were manifestly beneficial to the colonies.



HIS proposal met with no serious opposition, though among the supporters of the war there were considerable murmurs at the renunciation of all its objects; while among its opponents a serious schism was soon perceptible. A part, including Governor Pownall, maintained that every attempt to bring America again under subjection was now chimerical; they were and

must be an independent sovereign people; the true policy was to treat with them as such, and endeavour to form a close federal and commercial alliance, which might snatch them out of the arms of France. Mr. Hartley, General Conway, and the Duke of Richmond, leaned to the same opinion. But Chatham listened with the deepest indignation to the mention of severing from Britain that mighty empire which he had been the instrument of so widely extending. On the 7th April, he appeared in the House of Lords. "I rejoice," said he, "that the grave has not closed on me; that I am still alive to lift up my voice against the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble monarchy. Shall this great kingdom, that has survived the Danish depredations, the Scottish inroads, and the Norman conquest; that has stood the threatened invasion of the Spanish Armada, now fall prostrate before the house of Bourbon?" If peace could not be preserved with honour, why was not war commenced without hesitation? He did not know what were the means of carrying it on; but any state was better than despair. "Let us at least make one effort; and if we must fall, let us fall like men." In the course of this debate, this great statesman was seized with a paroxysm of illness, which, in a few weeks, terminated his life and his splendid political career. Lord Shelburne also declared, that the moment Britain acknowledged the independence of America, her sun was set. There is little doubt, that the opposite course would even before this have



SILAS DEANE.

been the wisest; yet it was one for which the British nation in general was by no means prepared.

We must now look to the continent of Europe, where measures of the deepest importance had been secretly in agitation. Congress for some time declared that they had abstained from any attempt to seek support by foreign alliances, when they might have done so with every prospect of success. France and Spain, it was well known, deeply humbled by the result of the war ended in 1763, and the extensive territories then wrested from them, were anxiously watching an opportunity to retrieve and avenge these losses. The latter power, indeed, might dread lest the same spirit should spread to her own settlements; but France upon this head had much less to fear. In the spring of 1776, all the leading men in the colonies, having fixed their minds upon independence, became disposed to avail themselves of the advantages of foreign treaties. Franklin indeed states, as his first opinion, that America, "as a virgin state, should not go about suitoring alliances," but rather wait till she was courted; but he was overruled, and ultimately became the most active agent. On the 29th November, 1775, a committee had been appointed to open a correspondence with the friends of America in

Europe. The first person employed was Silas Deane, a member of Congress, who was instructed to visit Europe in the character of a merchant, and endeavour to open private channels, by which the cabinets might aid America without openly committing themselves. He arrived about the 1st July, 1776, and found the French court well disposed to favour his views. Turgot, a minister friendly to peace, had been replaced by Vergennes, who eagerly aspired to regain for France the ground lost in the late contest. A great dread, however, being felt lest the power and perseverance of America should fail, and France be left alone to maintain an unequal contest, the minister intimated, that aid could not be openly given, but that no obstruction would be opposed to the shipment of warlike stores and supplies; if any occurred, it need only be stated, to be speedily removed. In fact, Mr. Deane was informed that arrangements had already been made for transmitting by a circuitous route a liberal supply. Beaumarchais, a Frenchman, had gone to London, and sought out Arthur Lee, the secret agent of Congress, whom he informed that the court of France had resolved to assist the colonies with military stores to the value of £200,000. They were not, however, to come direct from that high source, but from himself, under the fictitious firm of Roderique, Hortales, and Company, to be ostensibly established at Port St. François in St. Domingo, whence the great bulk of the articles were to be furnished. Mr. Lee fully understood them to be delivered out of the French magazines, and that only a slight and formal return was expected. By this underhand channel, twenty-five thousand muskets and other supplies were in the beginning of 1777 received in America, and were of the utmost use to Washington in the equipment of the new army which he was then levying. In the end of that year, however, Congress were much surprised by the demand, from an agent of Beaumarchais, of payment for all the stores thus furnished. Several letters explaining the transaction had been intercepted; and the mystery in which the whole was involved rendered it impossible for them to give an absolute refusal. Their commissioners, however, were instructed to seek in the most delicate manner an explanation from the French ministers, intimating their belief that they had been indebted to his majesty alone for these valuable supplies. That court, however, on being repeatedly pressed by the British ambassador upon this subject, had not scrupled to deny having afforded any aid whatever to the colonies; so that a breach of its honour, that is, an exposure of its deceit,



THOMAS PAINE

was apprehended, in now making the statement. The minister therefore replied, that Beaumarchais had merely received these stores from his majesty's arsenals as a personal accommodation, and on condition of replacing them; gravely adding, that he knew nothing of such a house as Roderique, Hortales, and Company. Some time after, a controversy having arisen with Mr. Deane, Thomas Paine, then secretary of the committee for foreign affairs, published a pamphlet, broadly stating that the stores had been supplied by the French government as a gift, and with an express intimation that no payment was expected. Hereupon Gerard, the French ambassador, presented two memorials to Congress, calling upon them for an explicit disavowal of these assertions. That body, according to Mr. Pitkin, could not possibly at this time quarrel with France on any ground, and therefore put forth the declaration demanded, though having, he admits, the strongest ground for believing it untrue. Paine, for his indiscretion, was obliged to resign his office; and it became impossible to escape from the engagement to pay in the course of three years the demands of Beaumarchais. Congress still hoped that the French ministry would in some way interpose to avert this burdensome obligation; but they were disappointed; and through this chain of circumstances they were under the hard necessity of paying a profligate adventurer for supplies which had in fact been freely furnished to them out of the French magazines. He even intercepted one of three millions of livres covertly presented to them by their ally; but before the final settlement they learned this fraud, and deducted it from the payment.

As soon as the Declaration of Independence had been fully matured, Congress applied itself openly and with increased vigour to the object of foreign alliances. On the 11th June, a committee was appointed to prepare a plan, which was not however matured and approved till the 17th September, when Dr. Franklin, Mr. Deane, and Mr. Lee, were appointed commissioners to proceed to France. The former, from his weight of character, sound judgment, and address, had almost the entire direction. On reaching Paris, however, in December, 1776, he found the cabinet by no means prepared openly to espouse the cause of the States, or even to acknowledge their independence. Friendly professions were made, and a continuance of private succours promised; but there was an evident determination against proceeding farther till it should appear whether they could resist the shock of the British armies, the pressure of which was then so severe. The disasters of the campaign increased the anxiety of Congress upon the subject. They sent commissioners to the courts of Vienna, Spain, Prussia, and Tuscany; and in order to induce France to declare openly in their favour, offered large privileges for commerce and fishery, and even the possession of such West India islands as might be captured during the war. But the same distresses which impelled to these overtures, made the court cautious of accepting them, and it continued to watch the train of events. The campaign of 1777, notwithstanding its misfortunes, was considered to afford prospects of making a permanent stand; but the French counsels evidently vacillated with every intelligence and even report which arrived from America. No change took place till the arrival, early in December, of the momentous tidings of Burgoyne's surrender, which at once gave a decisive turn to the views of the cabinet. On the 16th, M. Gerard intimated to the commissioners that, after long deliberation, the king had determined to acknowledge the independence of the United States, and also to afford them support, though thereby involving himself in an expensive war. It was frankly admitted that he thus acted, not merely from a friendly disposition towards them, but for the promotion of his own political interests. On the 8th January, 1778, Louis wrote a letter to his uncle, the king of Spain, referring to Britain as their common and inveterate enemy. During the pending contest, he had afforded to the colonies supplies of money and stores, at which England had taken deep umbrage, and would no doubt seize the first opportunity of avenging herself. The Americans had indeed shown that they were



CONCLUSION OF THE TREATY WITH FRANCE.

not to be subdued, but Britain might succeed in her present attempts to form a close and friendly alliance with them, and thus turn her arms undivided against her continental enemies; now, therefore, was the time to form such a connection as might prevent any reunion between them and the mother-country.

In pursuance of these views, there was concluded, on the 6th February, a treaty of commerce, accompanied by one of defensive alliance in the well-foreseen case of war being the result. The allies were to make common cause with the States, and to maintain their absolute independence. Whatever conquests should be made on the continent were to be secured to them, but those in the West Indies to the crown of France.





COMMODORE JOHN PAUL JONES

CHAPTER XXXI.

CAMPAIGN OF 1778.



THE treaty between France and America, though soon generally known, was for some time studiously concealed from the British minister. On the 13th March, however, the French ambassador at London delivered a note referring to the United States as already in full possession of independence, whence his majesty had concluded with them a treaty of friendship and commerce, and would take effectual measures to prevent its interruption. Professions were made of the king's anxiety to cultivate a good understanding with Britain, and his sincere disposition for peace of which it was ironically said that new proofs would be found in thi

communication. On the 17th, this document was laid before parliament, with a message from the crown, stating that the British ambassador had in consequence been ordered to withdraw from Paris, and expressing trust in the zealous and affectionate support of the people for repelling this unprovoked aggression combined with insult. An address echoing the message was moved in both houses ; but the opposition reproached ministers with not having duly foreseen or prepared for this emergency ; while a few repelled as now hopeless the idea of holding America under any kind of dependence. It was carried, however, by majorities, in the Commons, of 263 to 113 ; in the Lords, of 68 to 25. The message for calling out the militia was sanctioned without a division.

In Pennsylvania, meantime, the two armies continued viewing each other without any material warlike movement. The distress suffered by Washington at Valley Forge was extreme, Congress taking no efficient measures to supply the troops with clothes or even provisions. That body indeed showed a decided jealousy of the army, and by ill-treatment did its utmost to render their suspicions well founded. The officers had to complain, not only of irregularity in receiving their pay, but of obtaining no promise of half-pay at the end of the war ; this last, however, through the remonstrances of Washington, was at length secured. That great man was farther harassed by a combination formed against himself and shared by Gates, whose friends contrasted his brilliant success against Burgoyne with the tardy and in many cases unsuccessful movements of the commander-in-chief. Their representations made for some time a considerable impression upon Congress and even the public ; but as the commander took no notice of this movement, and pursued the even and dignified tenor of his way, the cloud dispelled of itself. Although his force in spring was reduced very low, Howe did not venture to attack, but, according to the representations formerly made, considered himself strong enough only for partial and detached expeditions, several of which were undertaken with success. Not being, however, supplied with reinforcements sufficient for any important enterprise, he felt his situation painful, and solicited his recall. The British ministers, who probably hoped that a more enterprising commander might achieve some decisive successes, granted it, and named Clinton his successor. His officers, however, manifested their opinion of his merits by a brilliant fête on the occasion of his departure.



GENERAL GATES.



IN June, the British commissioners arrived with the new offers of conciliation. They consisted of Governor Johnstone, Lord Carlisle, and Mr. Eden, gentlemen who had hitherto advocated against ministers the cause of America. The terms were more than had been originally asked, amounting in fact to every degree of independence compatible with a union of force against

foreign powers, all alliance with whom was expected to be renounced. Smaller concessions would once have saved the colonies for Great Britain; but Congress and the leading men had now taken a position whence they felt wholly disinclined to recede. Their minds, in the course of the war, had become more and more embittered against

the mother country, and open to the pride of independent national existence, and of alliance with the great powers of Europe. They could not but doubt whether terms, so hardly wrung from an extreme necessity, would, in changed circumstances, be executed in their full extent; while they themselves would always be viewed as hostile, and removed as much as possible from power. They do not seem to have ever deliberated, merely appointing a committee to prepare an answer. Its tenor was, that notwithstanding all their wrongs, they were willing to conclude a treaty of peace and commerce, provided Britain should begin by an explicit acknowledgment of their independence, or by withdrawing her fleets and armies. Indignation was expressed at the manner in which their great and good ally, the King of France, was mentioned, and a full determination intimated of adhering to the connection. The commissioners wrote an explanatory paper, endeavouring to prove that every object of real importance was included in their offers; but as no new concession was made, it was determined to return no answer. Governor Johnstone had written letters to several members of Congress, in which, besides public motives, private advantages were held out in case of their aiding the cause of reconciliation. The receivers laid them before Congress, who immediately published them, with indignant comments, as attempts to gain the object by bribery.

The commissioners, thus vehemently repulsed by Congress, determined to appeal to the particular states and to the nation at large. A manifesto and proclamation were drawn up, fully explaining all the advantages now offered, including the removal of every grievance hitherto complained of; reminding the people that to these overtures Congress had refused even to listen, and asking if they were prepared to carry on a ruinous war, with no object but to throw themselves into the arms of a foreign power, so long their inveterate enemy. It was injudiciously added, that in such case warlike measures would be carried on with increased severity, so that if the country was to belong to France, its value might be diminished. Congress counteracted the effect of this paper by publishing it themselves with a comment of their own.

Clinton's first operation was to evacuate Philadelphia. Its position was deemed disadvantageous, being so far inland, at the head of a long and intricate bay, liable to be commanded by those large fleets which France was expected to send. On the 18th June, the British commander began his march, rendered very difficult by a great



BATTLE OF MONMOUTH



BATTLE OF MONMOUTH.

quantity of baggage and various encumbrances, whence his line extended nearly twelve miles. The Americans had destroyed the bridges, and made arrangements for intercepting his progress; but these he evaded by a judicious change of route. Washington now consulted his general officers as to the best mode of taking advantage of the enemy's circumstances. Lee and several others advised to avoid a general battle, but to harass him by detachments thrown upon his flanks and rear. The general, having formed an opposite determination, sent forward five or six thousand men to commence the attack, while he remained a few miles behind, ready to support them. Unluckily Lee, by his seniority, was entitled to command this advanced guard; while Clinton, who had his best troops in the rear, suddenly wheeled round, and attacked the Americans, who began a hasty retreat with the alleged concurrence of their leader. When Washington met them thus falling back, he bitterly reproached Lee, calling upon him to rally and lead back his troops. This was partially effected, and when the rest of the force was brought up, and General Greene had placed himself on the left flank of the British, they became exposed to a severe cross-fire, and were unable to make any farther impression. The contest was closed by night, of which Clinton took advantage to continue his retreat, and in two days reached Sandy Hook, where he embarked without molestation.



COUNT D'ESTAING.

After the battle, some embittered correspondence passed between Washington and Lee, who was thereupon brought before a court-martial, charged with having made a disorderly retreat, and shown disrespect to his commander. He was found guilty, and suspended from all command for a year, and in fact never again joined the army.

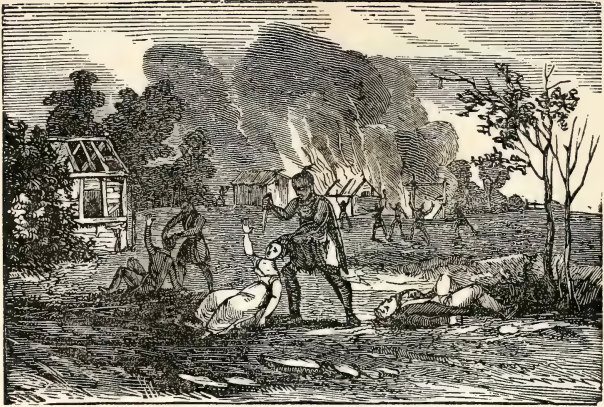
No sooner had France openly declared in favour of the States, than she fitted out and sent to their aid a fleet of twelve sail of the line under Count D'Estaing; while Britain despatched commodore Byron with one of equal strength. Both were delayed by contrary winds, and though the French admiral arrived first, he did not reach the Chesapeake till the British fleet and army had passed on the way to New York. Thither he followed, and reconnoitred the entrance of the harbour; but Lord Howe, though with only half his force, made such judicious dispositions, that D'Estaing judged it imprudent to attack. He was next invited to assist in operations against Rhode Island, still held by a considerable English force. General Sullivan, on the land side, was reinforced by New England militia, and by a detachment from the main army, under La Fayette, making in all ten thousand men. Howe hesitated not to approach; but a violent storm prevented the fleets from engaging, and allowed

only a few conflicts between single ships, in which the British had the advantage. D'Estaing complained that his squadron was thus so severely shattered as rendered it necessary to go and refit at Boston, which he did, without regard to the warmest remonstrances from Greene and La Fayette. Sullivan was thus left in a critical situation; a force came hastily from New York, sufficient to overwhelm him, and he was considered to have great merit in effecting a precipitate retreat, with only the dispersion of a part of his army. Byron soon after arrived, and reinforced Howe, when both fleets were placed under Admiral Gambier; and the English became completely superior at sea. The American press raised loud murmurs at the inefficient support afforded by their powerful ally, from whom so much had been expected. This was an additional trouble to Washington, who dreaded umbrage between the two nations, and made studied apologies to the French officers for the rash language of his countrymen.

He did not attempt any farther offensive movements this campaign; and Clinton took occasion to attack some of the principal privateering stations. On Acusnet river, in Buzzard's Bay, General Brey destroyed seventy sail of ships, and numerous storehouses; and from the island of Martha's Vineyard a large supply of sheep and cattle was drawn. At a rendezvous, however, named Egg Point, the success was imperfect, a great part of the shipping having escaped. On these occasions, plunder and outrage were practised to an unjustifiable extent against known privateers. The Americans, through the report of the French alliance, had obtained the evacuation of Philadelphia; but in every other respect their hopes of this campaign had been greatly disappointed. Their pride, however, was gratified by the arrival at Philadelphia of the French ambassador, Gerard, a highly respected individual, by whose agency chiefly the treaty had been concluded.



IN the course of this summer, the western country had been the scene of most distressing events; the tories were driven, by the rigorous laws enacted against them, to seek an asylum beyond the limits of the colonies. There they found themselves among the Indians, a race always bitterly hostile to the white borderers, and easily excited to the most daring enterprises. The tories stimulated these allies to deeds of more than their



MASSACRE AT WYOMING

wonted barbarity. Wyoming, a flourishing settlement on the Pennsylvania frontier, was suddenly assailed, the slender militia force which defended it overpowered, and the inhabitants exposed to all the horrors of Indian vengeance and massacre. From the lateness of the season, only a few partial attempts could be made to retaliate. Next spring, however, General Sullivan was despatched with four thousand men, and joined by General Clinton with another division from the Mohawk river. They entered the territory of the Indians, who, quite unable to resist so large a force, abandoned their homes and fled before them. The villages were then reduced to ashes, every trace of cultivation obliterated, and the region rendered as much as possible uninhabitable. This rigour is said to have been authorized by Washington, and justified on the ground that without interposing a desert between the states and this savage race, no security could be enjoyed on the frontier.

During the summer of 1778, the Indians, who had become very troublesome on the borders of Virginia, received a severe check from Colonel George Rogers Clarke. With a body of Virginia militia this officer penetrated to the British settlements on the Mississippi, captured the town of Kaskaskias, and made prisoner Colonel Hamil



COLONEL GEORGE R. CLARKE.

ton, the English commander of that quarter. This decisive measure put an end to Indian barbarities in that region.

Similar incursions took place at the south. A body of refugees from Florida entered Georgia, and summoned Colonel McIntosh, commandant of the fort at Sunbury, to surrender; but on receiving his answer to come and take him, they hastily retired. Another party from the same place, after laying waste a large tract of country, and carrying off all the negroes, horses, cattle and plate, belonging to the planters, and burning the town of Midway, retired into Florida. General Robert Howe determined to retaliate these attacks, and marched against St. Augustine with two thousand troops, but sickness obliged him to retreat.

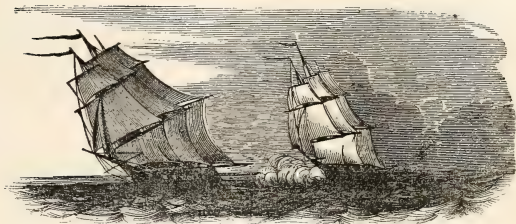
The British commander-in-chief now concerted a plan for obtaining possession of Georgia, by invading it with two separate bodies of troops. For this purpose, Major-general Prevost was to march from St. Augustine, with his whole force, and invade the south, whilst Lieutenant-colonel Campbell, with two thousand five hundred men from New York, invested Savannah. On the 23d of December, the latter appeared in the river, and effected a landing, without much opposition. To defend the state, General Robert Howe had about



CAPTAIN BIDDLE

SIX hundred continental soldiers, and two hundred and fifty militia, and with this force he had taken a very advantageous position, surrounded, except in front, by a swamp, river, and morass; and the nature of the place was such, that had he been attacked in front, he could have easily defended himself. A negro, however, being aware of a small private path, through the morass, which led to the rear of the American army, conducted a detachment of light-infantry, under Sir James Baird, upon the rear, while an attack was made in front. Thus the Americans were completely entrapped. Although they fought desperately, upwards of one hundred were killed, and four hundred and fifty-three prisoners, forty-eight pieces of cannon, twenty-three mortars, the fort, the shipping in the river, and a large quantity of provisions, fell into the hands of the conquerors. The remainder of the American army retreated into South Carolina. Augusta and Sunbury fell into the hands of the British, who now had the command of all Georgia.

After this time, all the attempts of the British at conquest were



BATTLE BETWEEN THE RANGER AND DRAKE.

directed from the southern towards the middle states ; and Clinton determined to commence the campaign of 1779, by an attempt to plant the royal standard in the fortresses of the Carolinas.

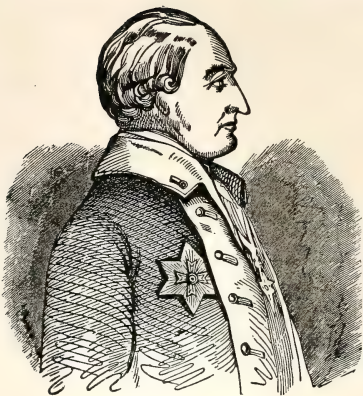
Meanwhile the American navy, which was soon to dispute successfully with the mistress of the sea, had already begun to distinguish itself. Vast numbers of British merchantmen and West India ships were captured by privateers. One of the most successful naval officers of the time was Captain Nicholas Biddle, of Philadelphia. After many brilliant achievements, he sailed from Charleston, March, 1778, in the *Randolph*, of thirty-six guns and three hundred and fifteen men. Accompanying him were the *General Moultrie*, the *Polly*, the *Fair American*, and the *Notre Dame*. On the night of March 7, he encountered the *Yarmouth*, of sixty-four guns, and engaged her without knowing the disparity of force. In the early part of the action he was wounded, but causing a chair to be brought, he remained with his men for about twenty minutes, when the *Randolph* blew up, carrying with her the gallant Biddle, and all his crew save four. The remaining part of the squadron escaped, the *Yarmouth* being too much crippled to give chase.

In this year, the celebrated John Paul Jones resolved to take advantage of the unprotected state in which the British were in the habit of leaving their own coast. Accordingly, he sailed in the *Ranger* of eighteen guns, around the coasts of Scotland and Ireland, and finally, after taking several prizes, he was attacked by the *Drake*, a twenty gun ship, the captain of which, after hearing of a descent which Jones had made on White Haven, sailed out of the harbour of Carrickfergus with many more than his usual complement of men, whilst Jones had lost nearly half of the men which he had in the *Ranger* when he first set sail. The remainder had been se

away in prizes. The two vessels engaged within pistol shot, and after sixty-five minutes close fighting, the captain and first-lieutenant of the Drake were both dead, and the vessel was compelled to strike her colours. Besides these two brave officers, the enemy lost upwards of forty men in the action. Jones sailed for Brest in his prize, where he anchored on the 7th of May, after an absence of twenty-eight days, during which time he had taken two hundred prisoners. Of one hundred and twenty-three men with him when he sailed, only two were with him when he anchored at Brest, the remainder having been distributed among his many prizes. Jones's chief object in this cruise was to capture as many prisoners as possible, in order, by exchanging, to obtain the release of the American prisoners in England and America, of which the number was large. In this object he completely succeeded.



COMMODORE PAUL JONES'S DESCENT ON WHITEHAVEN



BARON STEUBEN.

CHAPTER XXXII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1779.



SEVERAL of the late operations of the American army owed much of their efficiency to the admirable training of Baron Steuben, a Prussian officer who had served under Frederick the

Great, and had joined the American standard in December, 1777. His exact discipline contributed largely to the ultimate success of the war.

The attention of Congress and of the commander-in-chief was now called to plans for the campaign of 1779. The former, looking to their previous successes, and the powerful co-operation of France,

cherished the most brilliant expectations, and had formed schemes truly magnificent. Concluding that the English would be speedily expelled, or would of their own accord depart from America, the chief object was to be the invasion of Canada, from three different points, the French being invited to co-operate. Washington, on learning this vast design, took the utmost pains to prove its futility, and it was finally abandoned.

In fact, both the civil and military strength of the union was now at a lower ebb than at any time since the struggle commenced. The members of Congress had originally consisted of the ablest men in America, animated by the most ardent zeal, and implicitly obeyed by all the votaries of their cause. After the Declaration of Independence, however, a new modification of the government was considered necessary. A constitution was drawn up, and, after many delays and difficulties, brought into operation, early in 1779, under which the state legislatures were invested with all the most important powers, resigning only a few which were judged indispensable for united action. Congress still retained the direction of foreign affairs, of the war, and consequently of the naval and military force; but to furnish men and supplies for these services they had no resource, except requisitions addressed to the state legislatures. The latter had the complete option whether they should or should not comply, and had many motives which strongly inclined them to the latter alternative; indeed compliance could only be afforded by measures very unpopular, and which would have much disoblged their constituents. The demands of Congress were thus only partially and unequally fulfilled, and the levies never approached the amount at which they were nominally fixed.

The financial state of the country, too, was embarrassing in the extreme. The colonists, at the beginning of the war, had been very little accustomed to any serious taxation; and having taken arms expressly to resist it, would have ill brooked paying a larger amount for their expenses than Britain had ever demanded. It was not till November, 1777, that Congress ventured to make a requisition of five millions of dollars annually, to which the states but faintly responded. France and Spain gave some assistance, first in gift, and then in loan; but as their own finances grew embarrassed, these contributions became very stinted. The commissioners endeavoured to treat for loans with European capitalists, especially in Holland, and with this view drew a flattering picture of the future prosperity of the new republic.



SPECIMENS OF CONTINENTAL BILLS.

and her ultimate power to repay even the largest advances; but the Dutch were not inclined to be satisfied with such security, and money could be got only in small amount, and on exorbitant terms. One house made a somewhat liberal offer, but on condition of carrying on the whole trade of the Union, and holding all its real and personal property in mortgage. In these circumstances, the States had no resource except paper-money. In 1775, they issued three millions of dollars; and this moderate amount being easily absorbed in the circulation, proved an available resource. They were thus encouraged to pour forth repeated issues, which at the beginning of 1779 had risen to above a hundred millions, and in the course of the year to double that amount, which they had pledged themselves not to exceed. The necessary consequence was a depreciation of the notes to about a fortieth of their nominal value, and hence a miserable derangement in all mercantile and money transactions. The evil was aggravated, too, by preposterous remedies. The paper at its nominal value was made a legal tender for all debts; and by this iniquitous measure, which Washington deeply regretted, many creditors, both public and private, were defrauded, but no permanent relief could be afforded. As the articles furnished to the army, like all others, rose to an enormous nominal value, they were so ignorant as to fix a maximum, above which they should not be received. The

consequence was, that at this inadequate rate none could be got; and the army would have perished had not this absurd regulation been rescinded.



IN Europe, however, a transaction took place highly auspicious to the American cause. Spain, after long hesitation, determined to join the confederacy; and, on the 12th April, 1779, concluded for that purpose a secret treaty with France. She had for some time offered and even pressed herself as a mediator, having ultimately proposed a congress of all the contending powers at Madrid, and during the negotiation, a general suspension of arms; but as it was made a condition that in the mean time the colonies were to remain actually independent, Britain, though without expressing any hostile feeling, declared such terms inadmissible. The other party, however, was not disposed to stop here. On the 16th June, D'Almadovar, the Spanish ambassador, took his departure, after delivering a note, complaining not only of the rejection of his sovereign's friendly overtures, but of sundry violences committed on his subjects in the course of the war, and for which he was determined to seek redress. This was followed by a long manifesto, in which grievances were enumerated to the number of eighty-six, and the necessity stated of reducing the British maritime power. These documents were soon answered by letters of marque, followed by open war.



THEIR interior strength, as already observed, by no means corresponded with the splendour of their foreign relations; and Washington had clearly demonstrated to Congress the expediency of confining themselves to a defensive warfare. Clinton, on the other hand, did not attempt to penetrate far into the interior from New York; but engaged in some extensive expeditions for the destruction of stores and shipping. The most important was undertaken in May by a squadron under Sir George Collyer, upon whom the command of the naval force had now devolved, and having on board eighteen hundred men commanded by General Matthews. The object was the naval yard at Gosport on the Chesapeake, with the military stores and shipping at Portsmouth and Norfolk, the two chief seats of commerce in Virginia. The only defence was a fort with one hundred and fifty men on Elizabeth river near Portsmouth; and this garrison, considering themselves too weak to resist, fled into a morass called the



CAPTURE OF STONY POINT BY GENERAL WAYNE.

Dismal Swamp. The British took up their head-quarters there ; and in the course of a few days made a complete sweep of every thing that was to be found on this range of coast, destroying or taking one hundred and twenty-seven vessels, and other property valued at half a million sterling. Clinton, however, very judiciously did not divide his army by any permanent establishment.

Immediately on their return to New York, the fleet and army were employed in an expedition on the Hudson. Kingsferry, about sixty miles up, and near the entrance of the highlands, formed the most convenient communication across the river for Washington's army, whose wings occupied both banks. It was defended by two opposite forts, Stony Point and Verplank's Point, which were both attacked. The first, being unfinished, was at once evacuated ; and the garrison of the other, after a vain attempt at resistance, was obliged to surrender. Clinton caused the two places to be put in a state of defence ; but operations were not pushed farther in this direction.

The next enterprise was against the coast of Connecticut, which had been a very extensive and successful theatre of privateering operations ; and on the 3d July, two thousand six hundred men sailed under Sir George Collyer and General Tryon, governor of New York. New Haven was soon captured, the militia making a vain attempt to

resist. There is stated to have been an intention to burn the town which was changed into the mere seizure of the stores and vessels. At Fairfield and Norwalk, a greater resistance was encountered; and both these places were nearly reduced to ashes. A proposed attack on New London was interrupted by a counter-project of Washington, who was anxious to do something to efface the impression of so many losses. It being understood that the newly-captured forts on the Hudson were little apprehensive of any attack, General Wayne was sent with a detachment, and reached Stony Point undiscovered at midnight of the 15th July, when, after a desperate but short struggle, he carried the place. The garrison, five hundred and forty-three in number, were made prisoners, and treated with great humanity. The opposite fort was also attempted, but without success; and the first, being then thought untenable, was demolished and abandoned; but Clinton re-occupied and repaired it.

An expedition was also sent in June from Boston against a station on the river Penobscot, formed by a detachment under Colonel Maclean from Nova Scotia. Above three thousand militia, under General Lovell, effected a landing on the peninsular point occupied by the English; but the works appeared to him too strong to be carried without the aid of regular troops, which were promised by General Gates. Before their arrival, however, Sir George Collyer appeared in the river with a squadron from New York, when Lovell re-embarked his troops, and formed with his ships a crescent across the river, making a show of resistance, till, seeing his adversary bearing up with superior force, he took to flight, and having no retreat, his fleet of six frigates and nine smaller vessels was entirely destroyed. The men escaped on shore, but had to penetrate through a long extent of desert, in which many perished. This blow was compensated by the surprise of Powles Hook, a fort immediately opposite to New York. Being far within the British lines, the commander yielded to a culpable security, from which, about three in the morning of the 18th August, he was roused by Major, afterwards Brigadier-General, Henry Lee, who entered the place without resistance, and made one hundred and fifty-nine prisoners. Circumstances did not allow the captor to retain it, and he found some difficulty in retreating.

Congress, meantime, had planned the reduction of East Florida, and hence had recalled General Robert Howe, supplying his place by Lincoln, an officer of much higher reputation, who had been



GENERAL HENRY LEE.

second under Gates against Burgoyne. He found every thing in the most unprepared state ; and, before being able to put any force in motion, learned the total defeat of his predecessor, and the conquest of Georgia, which are noticed in the former chapter. Lincoln could then aim only at covering South Carolina ; and the river Savannah formed so strong a barrier, that the British general did not attempt to cross. Meantime, about seven hundred royalist refugees, who had been driven to take shelter among the Indians, attempted to rejoin the king's forces. Being attacked, however, by Colonel Pickens with a body of militia, Colonel Boyd, their commander, was killed, and only three hundred reached their destination. Several of the prisoners were tried and put to death.

Lincoln, encouraged by this success, and being daily reinforced, caused General Ashe with fourteen hundred men to cross the Savannah, and take post at its junction with Briar Creek, a stream unfordable for some miles up, and appearing completely to secure his front. It was thus hoped to exclude the English from Augusta and all the upper territories. Colonel Prevost, however, brother to the general, making a circuit of fifty miles, and crossing at fords fifteen

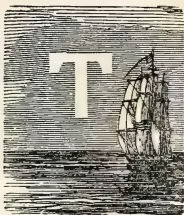


GENERAL PICKENS.

miles above, came unexpectedly on the rear of this body, and totally routed them—the regular troops, after attempting resistance, being all either killed or taken. - Notwithstanding this disaster, Lincoln, again reinforced, determined to proceed with his main body against Augusta. Prevost, instead of a long and harassing march in that direction, sought to recall him by a movement against Charleston; but intending only a feint, he proceeded with a leisure which he found reason to regret, as it appears had all practicable speed been employed, that capital would have fallen into his hands. The alarm, however, had been given, and such active preparations made, that he did not venture to attack, but distributed his troops in the neighbouring island of St. John. Lincoln, who had hastened down, made an attempt to beat up his quarters, without success; and the midsummer heat causing a suspension of military operations, the British troops retired unmolested into Georgia.

This state of affairs in the southern colonies called imperiously for the attention of Congress, and Washington found it necessary to detach thither some part even of his reduced army. He solicited more

powerful aid from D'Estaing, who commanded in the West Indies an army sufficiently powerful to crush the English in Georgia.



THE French admiral received this application just after having fought a hard battle against Commodore Byron, which obliged the latter to go into port to refit. The former being thus for a time master of the sea, determined at once to comply with the request, took on board six thousand land-troops, and steered direct for Savannah, where he captured a fifty-gun ship and three frigates. Prevost had

his force broken up into detachments distributed along the frontier: but these were ordered in so promptly, that before the French had landed and formed a junction with Lincoln, nearly all had arrived. On the 16th September, D'Estaing appeared before the place and summoned it to surrender. Prevost, under pretext of negotiation obtained a suspension for twenty-four hours, during which Colonel Maitland entered with the last and largest detachment, eluding Lincoln; and the full determination to resist was then announced. The allies, on reconnoitering the works, deemed it imprudent to attempt them by storm, and were obliged to wait a few days till the heavy ordnance and stores could be brought from the fleet. They broke ground on the 23d September; but the defence was conducted with great vigour and skill, under the direction of Major Moncrieff; so that notwithstanding some progress made by the 1st October, an interval must still elapse before surrender could be expected. D'Estaing then refused to adventure his fleet longer on this insecure coast, in a tempestuous season, and while liable to attack from the British squadron refitted and reinforced; yet before departing, he offered to concur in an attempt to carry the place by storm. This was agreed to; and a hollow way being observed, by which troops could advance to within fifty yards of the wall, four thousand five hundred men, the flower of the combined army, undertook to penetrate it, while the rest amused the garrison by feigned attacks. This party pushed on with great vigour; they had even crossed the ditch, mounted the parapet, and planted their standards on the wall. Being here exposed, however, to a tremendous fire from works well constructed and completely manned, they soon gave way; Count Pulaski was killed, and a brisk attack by Major Glaziers drove the whole back into the hollow. They then renounced the attack, having sustained the severe

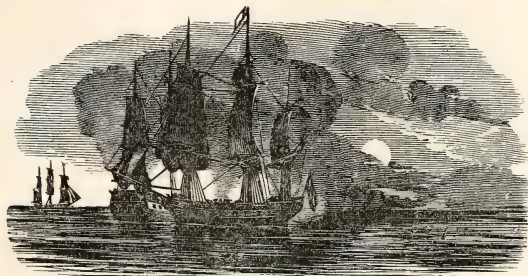


DEATH OF PULASKI

loss of seven hundred French and two hundred and thirty-four Americans killed and wounded; while that of the besieged was only fifty-five. The French admiral no longer paused in embarking his troops and sailing for the West Indies; thus a second time disappointing sanguine expectations, and leaving the American cause in a worse state than before.

During the summer, a squadron was fitted out by the American commissioners of Paris, the command of which was given to Commodore John Paul Jones. He sailed from Port L'Orient, in July, in the *Bon Homme Richard* of forty guns, accompanied by the *Alliance* thirty-six, the *Pallas*, thirty-two, and the *Vengeance*, twelve.

After capturing several vessels on the coast of Scotland, he threatened to lay the town of Leith under contribution; but a storm coming on, he set sail, and directed his course to Flamborough Head. On the night of the 23d of September, while cruising off the Head, he fell in with the *Serapis*, of forty-four guns, which was convoying the Baltic fleet, in company with the frigate *Countess of Scarborough*. The people of the surrounding country were gathered on the heights about the Head, and witnessed the novel scene. The *Serapis* had every advantage over the *Richard* in the number and calibre of guns, and in being more manageable than her antagonist. This advan



CAPTURE OF THE SERAPIS

tage was somewhat lessened, however, by the Serapis running her bowsprit between the poop and mizzen-mast of the Bon Homme Richard, when Jones, with his own hands, lashed it fast, and brought the two vessels together. The ships were thus engaged from half-past eight till half-past ten, the muzzles of their guns touching each other's sides. One of the men on the Bon Homme Richard carried a basket of hand-grenades out on the mainyard, and threw them among the crew of the Serapis. At half-past eight, one of these combustibles exploded a cartridge-magazine, blew up among the people abaft the main-mast, and rendered all the guns on that side useless. The two ships were frequently on fire during the action, and the spectacle was inexpressibly awful. At last Captain Pearson of the Serapis struck his flag, when Jones immediately transferred his crew on board of her, as the Bon Homme Richard was in a sinking condition.

Whilst the action between the two larger vessels was maintained, the Pallas engaged, and, after two hours' fighting, compelled the Countess of Scarborough to surrender. On the 25th, the Bon Homme Richard, after every exertion on the part of Commodore Jones to save her, went down. Jones sailed for Holland with his prizes, and on the 3d of October anchored off the Texel, having taken during the short cruise prizes estimated to amount to more than £40,000.

In 1780, Commodore Jones took command of the *Ariel*, a small store-ship of twenty guns, and sailed for the United States; but, losing his masts in a gale, he was obliged to return to L'Orient to refit; and, thus delayed, he did not reach America until February, 1781. Jones was honoured with the thanks of Congress, and a gold medal was struck in commemoration of the victory over the Serapis.



GENERAL MARION.

CHAPTER XXIII.

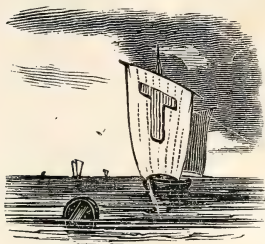
CAMPAIGN OF 1780.



GENERAL CLINTON had determined to begin operations on a great scale in the southern states. Recent information showed them to be more defenceless, and the inhabitants better inclined to the British dominion, than those on the great northern theatre of war; while their reduction might facilitate that of the others, or at all events preserve for Britain an important portion of her American ter-

ritory. He had recently obtained a reinforcement from England, and had withdrawn the force hitherto stationed with little advantage upon Rhode Island On the 26th of December, 1779, leaving Knyp-

hausen with troops sufficient to defend New York against the army of Washington, he sailed with five thousand men for Savannah.



HE voyage was prolonged till the end of January ; some of the vessels were wrecked, and nearly all the horses perished. He exerted himself actively to repair these losses ; and by the middle of February he re-embarked and landed at St. John's Island, near Charleston. Some time was spent in recruiting and reinforcing his troops and re-

mounting his cavalry ; while Lincoln was actively strengthening the garrison, and restoring the works which, since the memorable attack in May, had fallen into almost complete decay. He raised two thousand regulars, one thousand militia, and a great body of armed citizens ; but the chief hope rested on preventing the British from crossing the bar ; but the fleet, under a favourable wind and tide, passed with scarcely any opposition. Lincoln then seriously deliberated on evacuating the place and saving his army ; but he dreaded popular reproach, and was buoyed up with promises of re-inforcements that never arrived. On the 1st of April, Clinton crossed the Ashley, which, with Cooper river, encloses the peninsula of Charleston, and broke ground before the city. On the 9th, the first parallel was completed ; yet the garrison still communicated with the country by their cavalry at Monks' Corner, about thirty miles up Cooper river. Colonel Tarleton surprised and defeated this body. The British soon after received a reinforcement of three thousand ; when Lincoln seriously proposed an attempt to extricate his army ; but the principal inhabitants, entertaining a well-founded dread of ill-treatment from the captors, prevailed upon him only to offer a capitulation on condition of the garrison being still allowed to serve. This proposal was at once rejected ; the siege was steadily pushed ; all the outward posts successively fell ; and the third parallel being completed, preparations were made for a general assault. Lincoln, then seeing his situation hopeless, submitted to the terms proffered by the victor, that all the military stores should be given up, the regular troops made prisoners of war, while the militia, on giving their parole, might return and remain unmolested at their homes. The prisoners taken were stated by Clinton at five



TARLETON'S QUARTERS.

thousand six hundred and eighteen, with one thousand seamen and three hundred and eleven pieces of ordnance.

Clinton now published a proclamation, promising to the people a renewal of all their former privileges, with the addition of not being taxed unless by their own consent. Soon after, he issued another, absolving the militia from their paroles, and calling upon them to join with other citizens in aiding the British cause. This step was an outrageous breach of faith, and at once roused the whole southern country into determined resistance of their faithless oppressors.

On the 5th of June, Clinton set sail for New York, leaving Lord Cornwallis with four thousand men to secure, and if he could, extend his conquests. Detachments had already been sent up the principal rivers, Savannah, Saluda, and Santee. On the last only, a party of four hundred, under Colonel Buford, was rapidly retreating. Though ten days in advance, they were overtaken by the rapid march of Tarleton, and at Waxhaws completely routed and dispersed. Tarleton caused a massacre of nearly the whole detachment, and thus gave rise to the term *Tarleton's quarters*, which was current during the remainder of the war. The principal force of the enemy was then advanced to Camden on the Wateree, near the frontier of North Carolina; but the intense heat, with the difficulty of provisioning



the army till the corn was on the ground, rendered a delay necessary. The Tories in that province were advised to remain quiet till a powerful support could be brought forward ; but their furious zeal could not be restrained, and broke out in several insurrections, which were suppressed and punished with a rigour tending to deter from similar attempts in future.

Extreme alarm was felt by the American government on receiving intelligence of these events ; and amid the greatest obstacles, it was necessary to make vigorous efforts to retrieve their affairs. Washington made arrangements for the march of the troops in Maryland and Delaware, and for calling out the militia of Virginia and North Carolina. He placed them under the Baron de Kalb, a veteran German officer ; but Congress soon after conferred the chief command on Gates, hoping that the conqueror of Burgoyne might again turn the tide of fortune. Notwithstanding the utmost despatch, the want

of money, military stores, and provisions, detained him so long, that though the expedition set out in March, it was the beginning of August before he could approach Camden, with about four thousand men, mostly militia. He advanced in the determination to push vigorously offensive operations, hoping to induce Lord Rawdon to fall back upon Charleston. That officer, however, had given notice to Cornwallis, who hastened to the spot, and though his force was little more than two thousand, he resolved without hesitation to attack. He had set out in the night of the 15th, with a view to surprise the Americans, when, by a singular concurrence, he met Gates in full march with the same design against himself. The advanced guard of the latter was driven in, when both parties thought it advisable to postpone the general action till daylight. In the American line, Kalb, with most of the regulars, commanded on the right, while the militia of Carolina formed the centre, and that of Virginia the left. The conflict began with the last, who were attacked by the British infantry, under Colonel Webster, with such impetuosity, that they threw down their arms and precipitately fled. The whole of the left and centre also fled. Gates himself retreated till he reached Charlotte, eighty miles distant.



MEANTIME, Kalb, on the right, opposed to Lord Rawdon, long and firmly maintained his ground, gaining even some advantage; and it was not till the victorious divisions had wheeled round against him, that his corps was broken and dispersed. He himself, covered with wounds, became a captive, and, notwithstanding every care, expired in a few hours. About one thousand prisoners were taken, and the whole army was scattered. Gates erred in fighting a pitched battle with an army consisting chiefly of militia, and in having composed of them so great a part of his regular line, instead of merely employing them to skirmish on his front and flanks; but, in fact, his veteran force seems to have scarcely sufficed for a duly extended order of battle.

Meantime, the patriots in South Carolina had begun to rise at different points. The militia, complaining that the terms granted had not been duly observed, deserted the British standard in masses: one Colonel Lisle carried with him a whole battalion. Thus were assembled, under Colonel (afterwards General) Sumpter, an active partisan, upwards of six hundred, raised by a detachment from the



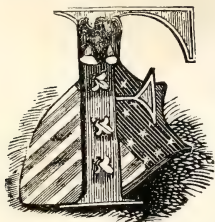
GENERAL SUMPTER.

man army to about one thousand. He was repulsed in attacks upon the stations called Rocky Mount and Hanging Rock ; but, on the evening before the battle of Camden, succeeded in carrying a strong redoubt on the Wateree, taking above one hundred prisoners. On learning the fatal issue of that day, he instantly began his retreat, and reached with such celerity the fords of the Catawba, that he considered himself safe, and allowed his men to repose during the heat of the day. Tarleton was sent in pursuit. His rapidity was such, that the greater part of his corps could not follow him from fatigue ; but with one hundred and sixty only he came up, and found Sumpter's party completely unprepared, their videttes asleep, and the men lying apart from their arms. Roused from slumber by the attack of the enemy, they scarcely attempted resistance ; and after a short struggle, about half were captured, the others dispersed. They lost one hundred and fifty killed and wounded, besides three hundred and ten prisoners ; all their stores were taken, and the British captives recovered.

Cornwallis, having thus become master of a considerable number of prisoners, put many of them to death, and thus exasperated the war into one of extermination.

After a few weeks' delay on account of the heat, the British general advanced to Charlotte Town, in North Carolina. Meantime

a corps of about sixteen hundred Tory militia having been assembled, under Major Ferguson, he was directed to move westward, and clear the territory along the foot of the mountains. He was led farther in this direction by the movements of a party of patriots which threatened Augusta, where he approached and roused into action a class of terrible foes to the British cause. The borderers, who roved along the sides of the Alleghany, were if possible ruder and bolder than the boys of the Green Mountains. They rode on light fleet horses, carrying only their rifle, a blanket, and knapsack. Food was procured by the gun, or, on its occasional failure, from a small herd of cattle driven behind them. At night, the earth was their bed, the sky their canopy. They thus moved with a swiftness which no ordinary troops could rival.



FERGUSON, after receiving orders from Lord Cornwallis to move westward, attempted to relieve Augusta, then threatened by a band of patriots under Colonel Clarke; and thus roused against him those terrible antagonists of the Tories—the border settlers. These men came down suddenly upon Ferguson. He commenced a hasty retreat from Charlotte

ville; but several bands under Colonels Williams, Campbell, Shelby, and Tracy, having united together, began a rapid pursuit. Halting at Gilbert town, they selected sixteen hundred of their best riflemen, and hurrying on, overtook the Tories encamped at King's Mountain. Arranging themselves in three divisions, under Colonels Cleaveland, Shelby, and Campbell, they attacked by turns, and on being repulsed, retired but a little distance, re-formed, and again advanced. Ferguson charged again and again with the bayonet. Repulse only inspired his assailants to greater exertions, and after an hour's fighting, he fell, mortally wounded, and his surviving troops, numbering eight hundred, surrendered. One hundred and fifty fell dead in the action, and as many more were wounded. Fifteen hundred stand of arms were also captured; the American loss was small; but among the dead was the lamented Colonel Williams.

During these operations in the south, General Washington was so cramped in resources for supplying the army, and surrounded by difficulties of so formidable a nature, that he found it impossible to



BATTLE OF KING'S MOUNTAIN.

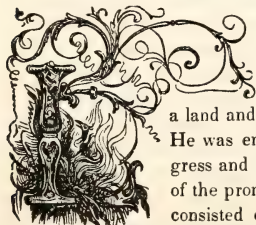
attempt offensive operations of any magnitude. Many of the troops were in a starving condition, and all were so destitute of clothing as to be in danger, during the winter, of perishing with cold. Numbers of horses died or were rendered useless; the pay of officers was depreciated to a mere nominal value; and the whole army had ceased to receive the promises of Congress with confidence. While these symptoms threatened the dissolution of the army, the term of service of several of the regiments expired, and the greatest efforts were requisite to induce them to remain.

It cannot be wondered at, that amid these appalling hardships, mutiny began to display itself. Two Connecticut regiments paraded under arms, for the purpose of either obtaining subsistence by force, or returning home. After much persuasion, however, they were induced to return to duty. About the same time, papers from the enemy, containing promises of abundant food and pay, if they would desert to the British, were privately circulated among the soldiers; but, to the honour of the American character, they were treated with utter contempt. Notwithstanding this repulse, General Knyphausen crossed into New Jersey with five thousand men, in order to take advantage of circumstances; but he was so roughly handled by both regulars and militia, that he retreated to Elizabethtown. Clinton



COUNT DE ROCHAMBEAU.

having arrived from Charleston, sent him a reinforcement, with which he again advanced toward Springfield. He was opposed by General Greene, and after a severe action, he burned the town and retired to New York. The loss of the Americans was about eighty men; that of the enemy considerably more.



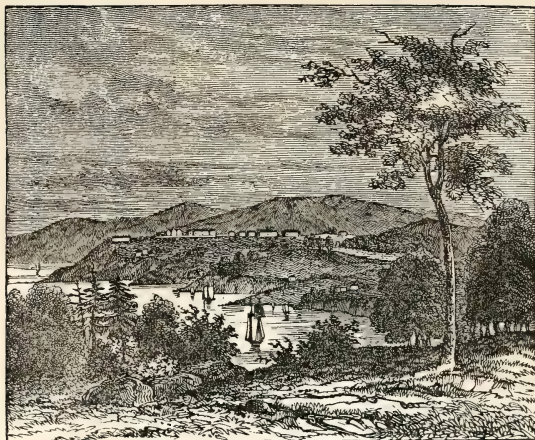
LATE in the spring, the Marquis de La Fayette returned from France with the cheering intelligence that his government would shortly send a land and naval force to assist the Americans. He was enthusiastically received both by Congress and the people. In July, the first division of the promised fleet arrived at Long Island. It consisted of seven ships, two frigates, a cutter, an armed hospital ship, and thirty-two transports, carrying in all six thousand men and five hundred and ninety guns. The land force was commanded by the Count de Rochambeau; the fleet by the

Chevalier de Ternay. Such, however, was the scarcity of military stores among the Americans, that they were totally unprepared to act with their new allies; and before supplies could be obtained, news came that the remainder of the French fleet was detained in the harbour of Brest by a blockade—thus blasting all the brilliant hopes of ending the war in that campaign.

In September of this year, a plot was discovered which, happily for the honour of America, stands out as a solitary episode in our history. To understand its causes, we must glance back to events preceding the year 1780. It will be remembered that it was principally owing to the exertions of General Arnold, that the Americans gained the battle of Stillwater. He was there wounded in the leg, and being unfit for active service, was appointed commander at Philadelphia, after its evacuation by the British. Here an extravagant course of living soon involved him in debt, from which he sought to free himself by trade and privateering. This failing, he resorted to speculation. In July, 1779, he exhibited his accounts, with heavy demands against the public, half of which were rejected by commissioners appointed to examine them. He appealed to Congress; but a committee from that body confirmed the commissioners' report. This led to some bitter reflections upon Congress; and Arnold was at length tried by a court-martial, on charges preferred by the Governor of Pennsylvania, found guilty, and sentenced to be reprimanded by the commander-in-chief. This sentence was executed by Washington with becoming delicacy.

Arnold now applied for the command of West Point, the strongest military station in possession of the Americans, and so situated as to defend the camps of the American army on both sides of the North river, as well as command the river itself. Washington, anxious to heal the general's lacerated feelings, wished to bestow upon him the command of the whole left wing, during the march of his army upon New York; but on the assertion of Arnold that his wound would not permit his engaging in active service, the commander-in-chief readily granted him the superintendence of West Point.

Being thus placed in possession of an important military post, Arnold began the prosecution of a scheme he had long meditated, which was no less than to surrender himself to the enemy, together with all the stores and troops under his command. After a secret negotiation with Sir Henry Clinton, through the agency of Major André, adjutant-general of the British army, he agreed to put that



WEST POINT.

commander in possession of the fortress, by marching his troops into the neighbouring defiles, while the enemy would enter through a designated pass. During this correspondence, Arnold assumed the name of Gustavus, and André that of John Anderson; while, to facilitate their operations, the Vulture sloop-of-war moved up the river and stationed itself as near as possible to West Point, without exciting suspicion.

At this time General Washington, with Knox, La Fayette, and other officers, was at Hartford, concerting with the Count Rochambeau a plan of operations for the ensuing campaign. This was arranged on the 21st of September, 1780. On the same day, André arrived on shore from the Vulture with a surtout over his regimentals, and in a boat provided by Arnold. The latter met him at the house of a Mr. Smith. Day appeared before their conference was finished, and for fear of discovery, André was secreted within the American posts. On the following night, for some cause not well understood, the boatmen refused to return him to the Vulture, and Arnold furnished him with a pass to "permit John Anderson to go to the lines at White Plains, or lower if he thought proper, he being on public business." After safely passing the guards and outposts, he was suddenly seized by three militia men. Instead of producing his



CAPTURE OF ANDRE.

pass, he asked where they belonged ; and being answered “to below,” [New York,] he immediately replied, “So do I,” adding that he was a British officer on urgent business. On searching his person, they found in his boot papers in Arnold’s handwriting, containing full descriptions of the garrison and defences of West Point, and a copy of a report laid by Washington before a council of war on the 6th of the month. Aware of his fatal mistake, André offered his captors a purse of gold, with his valuable watch and a large sum of money, should they permit him to pass ; but nobly disdaining these, they conveyed him to Colonel Jameson, commander of the militia in that quarter. This officer imprudently permitted André to write a letter to Arnold, informing him that Anderson was captured. The traitor was thus enabled to escape. Jameson forwarded a letter to General Washington, then on his road to West Point ; but it did not reach him until it was too late to arrest the fugitive.

Mortified as was the whole army at the disclosure of this nefarious plot, it was a subject of rejoicing that Providence had so manifestly interposed to counteract it. Washington appointed a board of fourteen general officers to examine the case of André. On his own confession of the circumstances, they unanimously pronounced him a spy, and that agreeably to the laws of nations he should suffer death. Washington was obliged to acquiesce in this verdict. Every effort was made to save him by the British commander, and even by



MAJOR ANDRÉ.

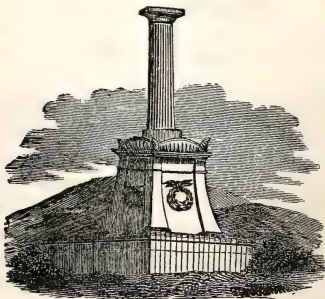
Arnold himself. André made but one request: it was that he might die as a soldier. This also Washington submitted to his officers, but in their opinion it could not be granted; and on the 2d of October the youthful, but too pliable André expired on a gallows. The sympathy for him throughout the American camp was unexampled under any similar circumstances; and his fate deeply affected the royal army. While the place of his execution was often moistened by the tears of his foes, the infamous Arnold was allowed to move a despised, insulted being, among those whom he had attempted to benefit, and finally to descend into the grave, unlamented and uncared for. The whole plan against West Point proved a total failure.

In October, Clinton sent General Leslie to Chesapeake bay, with three thousand picked troops, to form a junction with Lord Cornwallis. Some time after, he received orders from his lordship to join him at Charleston, which he did, thus swelling the forces at that place to more than eleven thousand troops.

In November, Major Talmadge with eighty men crossed Long Island Sound, and attacking Fort George, a British station on Long Island, captured it, together with a lieutenant-colonel, one captain, and fifty-five privates. His loss was one man wounded; that of the enemy eight killed or wounded.

The hardships of the troops, during the winter of 1780-'81, were equally formidable with those of the former year ; and the integrity of the army was again compromised by several instances of revolt. On the night of January 1, thirteen hundred of the Pennsylvania line stationed at Morristown seized their arms and marched towards Philadelphia, to demand redress from Congress. In attempting to quell this movement, one officer was killed and several wounded. General Wayne rode among them with a pistol in each hand ; but he was told that if he fired he would be "a dead man." Electing temporary officers, they marched to Princeton in good order, with their arms and six field-pieces. Here they were met by a deputation from Congress, who finally effected a compromise. Hearing of the defection, Clinton had hurried over emissaries to induce them to join the British : these were seized, delivered to General Wayne, and subsequently executed. A similar revolt by a part of the Jersey line was suppressed by the prompt execution of a few of the ring-leaders.

As these revolts served to disclose to the nation the suffering condition of her soldiers, the amount of three months' pay was raised by subscription and forwarded to them. This sum was joyfully received as an evidence of the share they still had in the sympathies and affections of their countrymen.



KOSCIUSKO'S MONUMENT AT WEST POINT.



GENERAL GREENE.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

CAMPAIGN OF 1781.



THE campaign of 1781 was one of the most active of the Revolutionary war, and decided the contest in favour of the Americans.

Although commencing with little prospect of such success, yet by a series of unforeseen events, it enabled the American commander to capture a large army, led by an able general, and so to weaken

the forces of the enemy as to render all their subsequent efforts entirely nugatory.



COLONEL HOWARD.

Immediately after the battle of Camden, Gates had appointed Morgan to the command of the light troops in the South. Greene retained him in this command, increasing his numbers to three hundred infantry under Colonel Howard, one hundred and seventy-five Virginia riflemen, and seventy of Colonel Washington's light dragoons. With this force Morgan posted himself west of the Wateree. At the same time Marion was watching the Tories, near Charleston, Georgetown, and other posts. On the 27th of December, 1780, Morgan detached Colonel Washington with his dragoons and about two hundred militia to the neighbourhood of Ninety-Six, where, surprising a body of Tories, he killed one hundred and fifty of their number, and captured forty, with a large number of horses. Soon after Morgan was joined by two hundred and sixty militia, under Colonel Pickens and Major McDowell.

Immediately after having been joined by General Leslie, Lord Cornwallis determined to drive Morgan from his post on the Wateree, and dispirit the inhabitants who were rising to join him. Tarleton was selected for this service, having nearly eleven hundred efficient royal troops and two field-pieces. After a rapid pursuit, during part of which Morgan retreated before him, the British officer came up



BATTLE OF THE COWPENS.

with the Americans stationed in battle array at the Cowpens, about three miles from the division line between North and South Carolina. The militia were in front, and so arranged that if forced to retire, they could re-form in rear of Colonel Washington's mounted men, and charge their pursuers with the bayonet. A little before day-break of January 17, Tarleton appeared in sight, and without affording his exhausted troops time to rest, ordered the attack. They rushed on with loud shouts, pouring in a heavy fire of musketry. The militia fell back; the British pursued on to the second line, which also fell back. But at this critical moment, Colonel Howard, observing the enemy's confusion, charged their whole column with his regulars. Nearly at the same moment Colonel Pickens succeeded in rallying the militia, with whom he warmly seconded Howard's movement. Simultaneously with these operations, Washington dashed among them with his cavalry. The whole command of the enemy were utterly routed; on being promised quarter by Colonel Howard, several hundred threw down their arms without offering resistance. A detachment left to guard the baggage was the only part of the infantry that escaped. Washington pursued Tarleton twenty miles and was once so near that he gave him a slight wound in the hand

The British lost ten commissioned officers and one hundred privates killed; twenty-nine officers and two hundred privates wounded, and five hundred prisoners. The Americans had twelve men killed, and sixty wounded. Upwards of eight hundred stand of arms, one hundred dragoon horses, thirty-five baggage wagons, and two standards, were among the trophies of victory. The Cowpens was to Cornwallis what Bennington was to Burgoyne.

The news of this event astounded Cornwallis; but with that energetic promptitude for which he was so remarkable, he resolved to pursue Morgan so rapidly as to prevent his contemplated junction with Greene; and thus attacking him with a vastly superior force, while encumbered with his prisoners, he hoped to cut him off completely, and neutralize the evil consequences of Tarleton's defeat. Destroying nearly all his baggage, and retaining only a sufficient number of wagons to carry his wounded, he set out [January 19, 1781] on his famous pursuit. But his vigilant antagonist, after sending the prisoners to Charlotteville, hurried on to the Catawba, which he succeeded in crossing [January 28] two hours before Cornwallis reached the opposite side. A heavy rain succeeded, which so swelled the waters of the river, that the British troops were detained two days, during which the prisoners had been advanced so far as to be out of reach. Morgan called out the neighbouring militia, and prepared to defend the passage of the river; but on the 31st, General Greene suddenly appeared in camp, having ridden one hundred and fifty miles to join Morgan, and hasten the detachment to Hick's Creek, where he had left the main army under General Williams. After an ineffectual attempt to resist the passage of the river, Greene marched toward the Yadkin, pursued so closely by Cornwallis, that the rear of one army was sometimes in sight of the other's van. The American general, however, succeeded in crossing safely, and joined the main army at Guilford Court-House, while another sudden rise of water prevented Cornwallis from following. But, instead of giving up the pursuit, he determined to keep in the upper country, intercept the retreat of the Americans over the Dan river into Virginia, and thus force them to a battle under great disadvantages. Greene's policy was to get into Virginia. In order to accomplish this, by checking Cornwallis, he sent seven hundred of his best troops, under Colonel Williams, who so harassed the pursuers as to compel them to march as compactly as possible during the whole route. On one occasion, Lieutenant-Colonel Lee made a furious charge upon their



COLONEL WILLIAMS.

advance cavalry, killing several, and securing a number of prisoners. Under cover of this party Greene hurried on to the Dan, marching sometimes forty miles a day, although his troops were barefoot. Providence again favoured his indefatigable exertions, and he crossed the river into Virginia in perfect security, having as spectators of his success the disconsolate Cornwallis, and his exhausted, dispirited followers. Greene secured all his boats on the opposite shore, so that further pursuit was impossible. During this retreat of more than two hundred miles, both armies suffered extremely from the inclement season, bad roads, heavy rains, want of tents, and scarcity of provisions.

Cornwallis now marched to Hillsborough, where he erected the royal standard, and invited the inhabitants "to return to their allegiance," and take up arms in the king's cause. Although this experiment had not the success he wished, yet several parties of Tories united under Colonel Pyle, and moved for Hillsborough. Tarleton was sent to escort them. On the 25th of February, they were met by a body of partisans under Lee and Pickens, and almost annihilated. A small number, in escaping, encountered Tarleton, who.

having heard the firing, was hurrying on to ascertain the cause. Hoping to retrieve a part of the reputation lost at the Cowpens, that officer, with a laudable zeal, fell upon these Tories without ceremony, and, under the unfortunate idea of their being rebels, granted them the mercy usually bestowed by him upon an enemy. This lesson made the Tories more circumspect in trusting themselves to the clemency of British protection.



GREENE had recrossed the Dan on the 21st and 22d, and after receiving a reinforcement of six hundred men under Stephens, he manœuvred for three weeks near Cornwallis's camp, cutting off all his foraging parties, and finally obliging him to fall back to the Haw river. Greene now received further reinforcements, both regular and militia, swelling his army

to four thousand two hundred men, of whom nearly twenty-five hundred were militia. With these he took up a position at Guilford Court-House, where he drew up the army in three lines, and offered battle. The British advanced in three columns. By the rashness of a militia officer, the North Carolina militia, composing the first line were thrown into confusion, and retreated. The Virginia militia fought with great bravery until ordered to retreat; after which the regulars maintained the contest for an hour and a half. To save his rear, Greene then ordered a retreat, which was well conducted. He lost three hundred continentals, and one hundred Virginia militia; Cornwallis had more than six hundred killed, wounded, or missing. Among the former were Colonels Stewart and Webster; while Brigadier-Generals O'Hara and Howard, with Colonel Tarleton, were wounded. Victory remained with the British; but its advantages were altogether with their opponents. So crippled was Cornwallis, that on the 21st he retreated towards Wilmington, leaving behind his hospital and wounded prisoners. Greene pursued as far as Ramsey's Creek, on the Deep river. By a strange and unexpected movement, his lordship, continuing his retreat, crossed into Virginia, and took post at Petersburg.

Greene now formed the daring project of penetrating into South Carolina, for the purpose of driving the British from the strong chain



COLONEL WASHINGTON

of posts which they there occupied. As a preparatory movement, Lee was sent forward to join Marion, which he did at the Santee. Their combined forces attacked Fort Watson, the most important post belonging to the British in South Carolina. It was taken by constructing near it an immense tower, from the top of which the American riflemen picked off the garrison at such a rate that on the 23d they surrendered.

On the 5th of April, Greene marched for Camden, which he reached on the 24th, and took up a position on Hobkirk's Hill. His force was eleven hundred and eighty men, of whom two hundred and fifty were militia. That of the British garrison, under Lord Rawdon, was about nine hundred. The American general offered battle, which was accepted [April 15]. Greene's dispositions were made in his usual masterly manner; and in the commencement of the action all the chances of victory were with him. But, suddenly, and without any apparent cause, the militia began a disorderly retreat; and, after a gallant struggle, Greene ordered the remainder of the army to retire. In the early part of the battle Colonel Washington had secured nearly two hundred prisoners, fifty of whom he brought off safely. Greene secured all his baggage, nearly all his wounded, besides six British officers. The loss of the British was

two hundred and fifty, that of the Americans about the same. The victory proved of no advantage to the enemy. Some few days after Rawdon attempted to surprise General Greene by night in his camp, out failed; and on the 10th of May he evacuated Camden, and retired south of the Santee.



HIS triumph on the part of the Americans was followed by others equally important. Or the 11th, Orangeburgh, with its garrison of seventy loyal militia and twelve regulars, surrendered to Sumpter. Next day Fort Motte, defended by one hundred and sixty-five men, surrendered to Marion and Lee. The posts of Nelson's Ferry, Fort Granby, Silver Bluffs, Fort Cornwallis, and Georgetown, speedily fell into the hands of the American partisan officers.

On the 24th of May, General Greene laid siege to Ninety-Six, then garrisoned by Lieutenant-Colonel Cruger with five hundred men. The American officer pushed his advances with such vigour that in a few days his fourth work was within thirty yards of the ditch round the fort, a rifle battery ten yards high was erected, the abattis turned, and a mine sunk within six feet of the ditch. But, in the midst of these flattering prospects, he received information that Lord Rawdon was marching against him, strongly reinforced by troops from Ireland. He therefore attempted to carry the works by storm [June 18]; but failing, he withdrew his army across the Saluda, pursued by Rawdon as far as the Enoree. The American loss was about one hundred and fifty men. It was in this siege that the Polish general Kosciusko particularly distinguished himself, and won the approbation and esteem of the American officers.

While Rawdon was congratulating himself upon his success in having driven Greene out of South Carolina, Lee suddenly defeated one of his foraging parties within a mile of the British camp. He soon found that the general himself was approaching to give him battle. He immediately retreated to Orangeburgh, and withdrew to his aid, Colonel Cruger, with the garrison of Ninety-Six. This obliged the American general to retire to the hills of Santee, leaving Marion, Sumpter, and Lee, to cut off the British communication. This caused the enemy to abandon all their posts north of the Santee and Congaree, and to concentrate their lines near the junction of the



BATTLE OF EUTAW SPRINGS.

latter river with the Wateree. By still further manœuvring, Greene drew them to the Eutaw Springs, where, on the 8th of September he advanced and gave them battle.

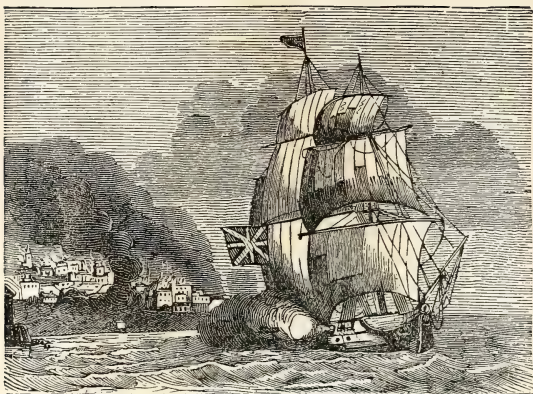
Greene's troops marched to the attack in two lines; the first composed of militia, the second of regulars. Two advance British parties were speedily driven in, and the battle became general. After an obstinate resistance, the American militia gave way; but the regulars warmly renewed the battle, charging with fixed bayonets amid heavy showers of cannon-shot and musketry. While Colonel Williams led the assault in front, Lee turned the enemy's flank and rear. Their whole force was thrown into confusion, five hundred were made prisoners, and the remainder began a hurried retreat. A portion succeeded in entering a large three story brick house, from which they could not be dislodged; in the effort to batter it down, the Americans lost four field-pieces and a considerable number of men. Next day Lieutenant-Colonel Stewart, the British commander, retreated towards Charleston, leaving behind him seventy wounded men and one thousand stand of arms. His loss, including prisoners, was upwards of eleven hundred; that of the Americans was five hundred, of whom sixty were officers. The lamented Colonel Campbell was mortally wounded, and died on the field. after being told that the



LORD RAWDON.

British were flying. Amid the heat of the battle the officers on each side fought hand to hand with their swords. This battle completely broke the power of the British in South Carolina, and confined their subsequent operations to insignificant excursions along the sea-coast.

During this summer, Lord Rawdon perpetrated a deed which has covered his name with infamy. It was the execution of Colonel Isaac Hayne. This officer, long distinguished in his native state for honesty, intelligence, and patriotism, had been taken prisoner at the siege of Charleston, but dismissed on his parol. In 1781 he was called upon, on pain of imprisonment, to sign a declaration of allegiance to the British king, containing an obligation to take up arms in the royal cause. This he complied with, on condition of not being forced to adopt the latter portion. But when the English, in violation of their express promise, called on him to repair to their standard, he deemed the obligation cancelled, and joined his countrymen, by whom he was given the command of a regiment. He afterwards fell into the hands of Lord Rawdon, who, after a mock trial by court-martial, sentenced him to be hung. Numbers of the British and loyalists, with Governor Bull at their head, petitioned for a remission



ARNOLD'S DESCENT ON VIRGINIA.

of the sentence ; and even the motherless children of the victim fell on their knees before his lordship, petitioning him to spare their father's life. The colonel's son, a youth of thirteen, spent the last days of his parent's life with him in the prison, begging that he too might be executed ; but all this was not sufficient to move the British leader's stony heart. On the 10th of August, 1781, Colonel Hayne perished on the scaffold.

Meanwhile the two main armies in the north were preparing for some decisive blow, which might either terminate the struggle, or give the victorious party a complete ascendancy in that quarter. Fortunately for Congress, the financial affairs of the nation had been placed under the superintendence of Mr. Robert Morris, who soon placed them in a better condition than they had been in during the war. About the same time the continental currency ceased to circulate, and loans of gold and silver were negotiated with France and the Netherlands. The army, this year, was in consequence better provided with clothing and ammunition than it had been during several campaigns.

Soon after the departure of General Leslie, in 1780, Arnold was sent against Virginia with sixteen hundred men and a considerable number of armed vessels. He ascended the Chesapeake, committing such devastations in his route, that General Washington was



GENERAL LA FAYETTE

obliged to send Lafayette with twelve hundred men to check him. The French fleet undertook to lend its co-operation by blockading the bay ; but did little more than sail from Newport, show itself on the Virginia coast, and then sail back to Newport. In order to capture Arnold at all hazards, a council of French and American officers, at which Washington and Rochambeau were present, resolved to send against him the whole French fleet, with eleven hundred men. But such was the slowness of the Admiral Detouche's movements, that Arnold escaped without seeing his enemy ; and after an indecisive action with Admiral Arbuthnot's squadron off Cape Henry, the French fleet returned to Rhode Island.

Late in March, Arnold was joined by two thousand men under General Phillips. After ravaging the districts lying along the bay, he marched to Petersburg, destroying in his progress immense quantities of tobacco, flour, shipping, public and private stores, and property. Soon after General Phillips died, and his troops joined Lord Cornwallis, who had arrived in Petersburg, May 20. On receiving news of his arrival, General La Fayette made a forced march to Richmond, where he secured a considerable amount of military stores. This success was counterbalanced by an expedition of Colonel Tarleton against Charlotteville, in which he captured seven members of the Assembly, and destroyed a number of stores.



GENERAL WAYNE'S CELEBRATED CHARGE ON THE BRITISH ARMY.

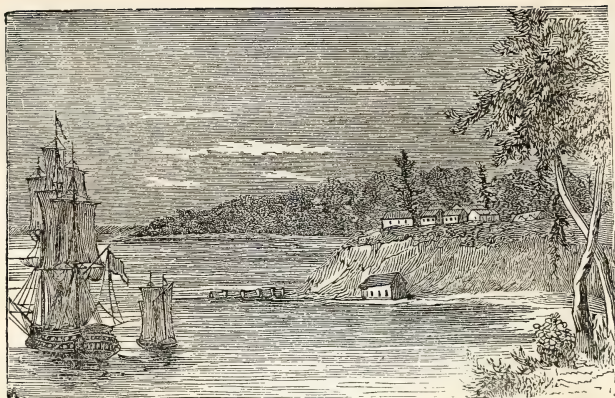
At this time the French general's supplies had been removed from Richmond to Albemarle Old Court-House. Hither the British proceeded, and by a rapid march were enabled to get between the marquis and his supplies. Cornwallis was now certain that he would either seize the supplies or force the Americans to a battle under great disadvantages. At night, however, La Fayette opened an old disused road, and marching round the British forces, completely foiled his antagonist. Cornwallis then fell back to Richmond; and subsequently, on hearing that Baron Steuben had joined La Fayette, to Williamsburg. Here a skirmish took place with the British rear, in which the Americans had the advantage.

Cornwallis now received orders from Sir Henry Clinton, to send part of his troops to New York, which was threatened by a combined attack from the French and Americans. Accordingly, on the 4th of July he sent his baggage and some wheel carriages across James's river, and concentrated his army on the bank. Being pursued by La Fayette, he placed his main body as compactly as possible on a tongue of land covered with woods, at the same time spreading out the troops across the river so as to induce the French general to believe that his main body was over, and only the rear remained



COUNT DE GRASSE.

La Fayette was completely deceived, and on the 7th commenced an attack, by spirited advances, upon what he supposed but a small part of his antagonist's force. The obstinacy of the resistance quickly undeceived him, and on hurrying forward to reconnoitre, he found that General Wayne with his eight hundred Pennsylvanians, on perceiving the error, had boldly charged the enemy's whole line. By this movement Cornwallis was in his turn deceived, not imagining that so daring an effort would be made by a comparative handful, unless large numbers were behind to second them. He therefore quietly suffered La Fayette to withdraw his forces, and during the night crossed to Jamestown, from whence he proceeded to Portsmouth. In this skirmish the Americans lost one hundred men, eighteen officers, and two cannon; the enemy acknowledge a loss of seventy-five. Soon after, his lordship received counter-orders from Sir Henry Clinton, to retain the troops formerly demanded, and occupy some good defensive position on the Chesapeake. He accordingly took possession of Yorktown and Gloucester Point, which he proceeded to fortify.



YORKTOWN, FROM A DRAWING BY MRS. SIMCOE.

On the 30th of August, much to the mortification of Cornwallis, the Count de Grasse suddenly appeared in the Chesapeake with twenty-eight sail of the line. York river was immediately blockaded, while thirty-two hundred troops landed and joined the army of La Fayette. While this was going on, Admiral Greaves appeared off the Capes of Virginia, and was met by the Count de Grasse. The two fleets manœuvred until the 7th of September, when the French leader, De Barras, safely passed the British ships and sailed up the Chesapeake with eight ships of the line. He was immediately joined by De Grasse, after which Admiral Greaves sailed for New York.

An attack upon Lord Cornwallis had not been the original policy of either Washington or Rochambeau. The causes which produced so material a change of plan are now to be narrated.

Early in the spring, Washington had arranged a plan with the French commanders for a combined land and naval attack upon the British head-quarters at New York. Its immediate execution was delayed by the great difficulty in raising continental troops; and in the meanwhile Clinton was reinforced by several regiments from England. While the commander-in-chief was chagrined by these mortifying disappointments, news was received of Greene's success in driving Cornwallis into Virginia; and as the destination of De Grasse was known to be the Chesapeake, Washington determined to abandon Sir Henry Clinton, and by a rapid march, to fall upon York-

own before its garrison could retreat to the south. After abusing Clinton for a considerable length of time, he suddenly broke up his camp, and had crossed the Delaware below Trenton, before Sir Henry was aware of his destination. General Heath was left in command of the northern army.

When too late, Clinton discovered his mistake ; but in order if possible to bring Washington back, he sent Arnold, who had lately arrived from Virginia, against the town of New London. That officer first attacked Forts Griswold and Trumbull, which defended the approach to the town. The latter fort, with the town, were immediately evacuated ; but Fort Griswold, with its garrison of one hundred and sixty men under Colonel Ledyard, made a gallant defence. The works were taken by storm, the commandant killed with his own sword while surrendering it, and the whole garrison, except about forty, massacred. The enemy lost their commander, Colonel Eyre, and one hundred and eighty-eight killed and wounded. Arnold sacked and burned New London, and then returned to head-quarters.

This outrageous proceeding had no effect in diverting Washington from his plan against Cornwallis. In company with the French leaders, he reached Williamsburg on the 14th of September, and there settled the final plan of operations. Toward the latter end of that month, all the allied forces had arrived, and every thing was in readiness for the commencement of the siege.

The main British army was encamped about Yorktown, on the south side of York river, within a range of outer redoubts and field works. On the opposite side of the river was Gloucester Point, defended by Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, with six or seven hundred men, and communicating with the chief position by means of batteries and ships of war. This latter post was watched by the French general, De Choisy ; while the main army moved to invest Yorktown on the 30th of September. On the night of October 6, the besiegers completed their first parallel, within six hundred yards of the English lines. Their fire was opened on the 9th and 10th, which was followed by the second parallel, within three hundred yards of the enemy. Here two redoubts, which considerably impeded their operations, were stormed—one by the Baron Viominel, with a party of Frenchmen ; the other by Americans under La Fayette. Both detachments advanced in the face of a heavy fire, without firing a gun. The Americans lost nine killed, thirty-two wounded ; the French about one hundred.



LA FAYETTE TAKING THE REDOUBT AT YORKTOWN

This occurred on the 14th. Two days after, Lieutenant-colonel Abercrombie made a sortie from the garrison with indifferent success; while during the same afternoon, the two captured redoubts were included in the second parallel, and one hundred pieces of heavy ordnance were brought to bear upon the enemy's lines. As the works of Cornwallis were now almost in ruins, he resolved on making his escape to New York by land, and had actually landed a portion of his army on Gloucester Point, when a heavy storm dispersed his boats, and the design was necessarily abandoned. Next day, several new batteries being opened, the works were no longer tenable; and his lordship requested of Washington a cessation of hostilities for twenty-four hours. The American commander granted him two hours, presenting at the same time a rough draft of propositions, on which he was willing to base articles of capitulation. Commissioners were appointed to digest these into form; and on the 19th Washington despatched the corrected copy to his lordship, expressing the expectation that they would be signed by ten, and the garrison be ready to march out by 2 P.M. of the same day. It being impossible to obtain better terms, Cornwallis was reduced to the mortifying necessity. The capitulation was signed at Moore's house, and at the appointed hour the garrison marched out, with their colours cased, and surrendered to General Lincoln on the same terms which, under similar circumstances, had been granted to that officer by Cornwallis at Charleston. Yorktown and Gloucester, with their garrisons and stores, were given up to the United States; the shipping and seamen



MOORE'S HOUSE, YORKTOWN.

to the Count de Grasse. Exclusive of seamen, the garrison numbered over seven thousand. During the siege they had, in killed and wounded, five hundred and fifty-two. The allied forces lost about three hundred.

On the 24th, Sir Henry Clinton arrived off the Capes of Virginia with twenty-five ships of the line, and eight frigates, bearing seven thousand men; but finding that Cornwallis had already surrendered, he returned to New York.

The capture of Cornwallis, with the army which had so long spread terror through the southern provinces, filled the whole country with gratitude and exultation. Congress voted its thanks to each of the commanders, and to the officers and troops engaged, and resolved to erect a marble column at Yorktown, adorned with emblems of the alliance between France and the United States, with a suitable inscription in commemoration of the victory. Washington was anxious to improve his success, by a combined attack upon the enemy at Charleston; but the French admiral refused to remain longer on the coast, alleging as reason, his engagements with the Spaniards in the West Indies. Accordingly, after covering the transportation of Washington's troops to the head of Elk river, he sailed towards Cuba, and the American army returned by detachments to the north.

Meanwhile, some important actions had taken place between the few ships possessed by Congress and single vessels belonging to Great Britain. In June, 1780, the Trumbull, of twenty-eight guns.



BATTLE-GROUND OF YORKTOWN.

Captain Nicholson, encountered an English vessel of superior size, and fought with her two hours and a half. The mainmast of the enemy fell, while all except the foremast of the Trumbull went by the board. Nicholson lost thirty in killed and wounded; the British captain, Coulthard, ninety-two; yet he claimed the victory.



CAPTAIN BARRY.

In October, the sloop *Saratoga*, of sixteen guns, Captain Young, captured a ship and two brigs, but was subsequently deprived of them by the British vessel *Intrepid*, of seventy-four guns. On the 2d of April, 1781, Captain Barry, in the *Alliance*, captured two Guernsey privateers; and soon after, two English men-of-war. One of them was subsequently recaptured. In June, the British took the *Confedera-*

cy, of thirty-two guns, under Captain Harding; and in August, the *Trumbull*.



HENRY LAURENS.

CHAPTER XXXV.

CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.



NOTHING could exceed the astonishment and indignation with which the news of Cornwallis's surrender was received in England. Parliament assembled on the 27th of November, when the king recounted, with evident mortification, his losses in Virginia, but at the same time urged the vigorous prosecution of the war. In the debate on this address, the opposition, led by Fox, Burke, and Pitt, were vehement in their denunciation of ministers and condemnation of all further proceedings against America. The usual vote of thanks was, however, carried by a large majority. Lord North then declared the purpose of the ministry to carry on a "war of posts," instead of operating by incursions into the interior. The opposition, however, strenuously opposed all such measures, boldly charging ministers with the prosecution of schemes whose palpable tendency was the dissolution of the monarchy. A



COLONEL LAURENS.

each successive trial his lordship found himself losing ground ; until at last, on the vote of an address to the king, presented by General Conway, praying for the discontinuance of the war, he was left in a minority of nineteen. Lord North then resigned, and a new cabinet was formed, under the auspices of the Marquis of Rockingham. That nobleman's death put an end to this administration ; and on the 11th of July, 1782, the king prorogued parliament.

Popular opinion in both countries was now strongly in favour of peace, and at length the British monarch consented to the opening of negotiations. Mr. Fitzherbert and Mr. Oswald were appointed commissioners for England ; and on the 30th of November, they met Messrs. Franklin, Adams, Jay, and Laurens, and agreed upon arrangements preliminary to a treaty between all the belligerent powers. On the 20th of January, 1783, France, Spain, Great Britain, and America, concluded the treaty of peace which secured the independence of the United States. Previous to this, [October 8, 1782,] Mr. John Adams had signed a treaty of amity and commerce with the United Provinces of Holland.

The campaign of 1782 was marked by but few military events. Wayne, with the Pennsylvania troops, had been sent into Georgia, where, about midnight of May 21, he attacked Colonel Brown, com-

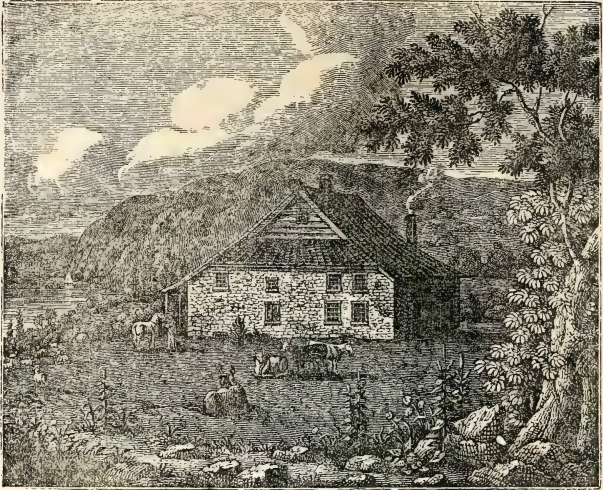


COMMODORE BARNEY.

mandant of Savannah, who had left that town in force, hoping to surprise Wayne. The British were totally defeated, with the loss of forty killed or wounded, and twenty prisoners. The victors had five killed, and two wounded. On the night of June 24, Wayne sustained a furious attack from a party of Creek Indians, whom he defeated, with the loss of one of their bravest chiefs. The royalists came out from Savannah to join the Indians; but they were driven back by Wayne, who captured a British standard and one hundred and twenty-seven loaded pack-horses. His own loss was thirteen killed and wounded. Savannah was evacuated by the enemy in July, and the war in that quarter ended.

On the 27th of August the lamented Colonel Laurens was mortally wounded during a skirmish of General Gist, with a large party of British, in South Carolina. On James's Island, Captain Wilmot, with a small party, attacked some British troops, but was killed, and his men were defeated. This was the last blood shed in the Revolution. Charleston was evacuated by General Leslie on the 14th of December, and Wayne took possession of it with five thousand troops.

In this year, the *Hyder Ally*, a Pennsylvania vessel of six guns.



WASHINGTON'S HEAD-QUARTERS AT NEWBURGH.

under Captain Joshua Barney, was attacked by two British vessels and a brig, while engaged in convoying a fleet of merchantmen to the Cape. By means of a skilful stratagem, she got into position to rake the brig, and in twenty-six minutes discharged twenty broadsides. The enemy then surrendered. It proved to be the *General Monk*, of eighteen guns. Barney's loss was four killed, eleven wounded; that of his enemy twenty killed, thirty-three wounded. Barney soon after captured a refugee schooner, which had given the Americans considerable trouble. On the other hand, the frigate *South Carolina* was taken by three large English vessels, appointed to watch her; and in the West Indies, the French fleet, under the Count de Grasse, was totally defeated and captured by the British under Admiral Rodney.

In December, 1782, the American officers at Newburgh petitioned Congress that instead of granting them half-pay for life, which had been promised but never paid, that body should vote them full pay for five years, and pay the arrearages then due. The unwarrantable delay of Congress in acceding to this reasonable request, so provoked

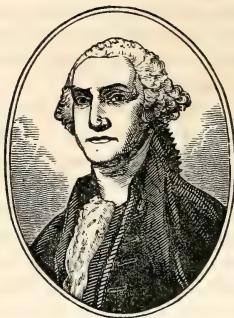
the officers, that but for the influence of Washington, they would at once have marched in arms to Philadelphia. At the earnest representation of their case to Congress by the commander-in-chief, the request of the officers was granted.

On the 19th of April, just eight years after the battle of Lexington, peace was proclaimed to the army. A critical duty now devolved upon Washington and the national legislature. This was the disbandment of the army, the members of which, after carrying the country triumphantly through the gloomy struggle for freedom, were now to be turned penniless to their ruined homes by the very power which had employed them. By relying on that patriotism which had ever shown itself capable of any sacrifice, and aided by the influence of Washington's popularity, Congress made the experiment. The old troops submitted patiently; but eight of the new levies marched from Lancaster, surrounded the state-house, and there kept the members of the national legislature imprisoned for three hours. Washington hurried a strong detachment after them; but the riot was quelled before he arrived.

New York was evacuated by the British in November, and entered on the 25th by General Washington, Governor Clinton, and a large number of citizens and military. On the 4th of December the commander took leave of his officers at Francis's tavern; after which he proceeded to Annapolis, where Congress was then sitting, and resigned, Dec. 23. He then retired to Mount Vernon. Meanwhile the independence of the United States had been acknowledged by Sweden, Denmark, Spain, and Russia. The final treaty of peace was signed at Paris, September 3, by David Hartley, on the part of George III., and John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and John Jay, on the part of the United States.



ADMIRAL RODNEY



WASHINGTON.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

ORGANIZATION OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT—WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.



URING the war of independence, common danger had produced feelings of sympathy and mutual obligation among the states constituting the American Union; and to this cause was owing, in an eminent degree, the acknowledgment of the authority of Congress to legislate for the nation. The return of peace broke this bond of union; and soon the germs of distrust, want of credit, and civil commotions, began to produce their legitimate fruits. As early as July, 1782, New York declared the general government incapable of furnishing itself with a revenue. In February of the following year, Congress made an effort to establish permanent and adequate funds throughout the United States; but in 1786, the measure was defeated by the opposition of New York.

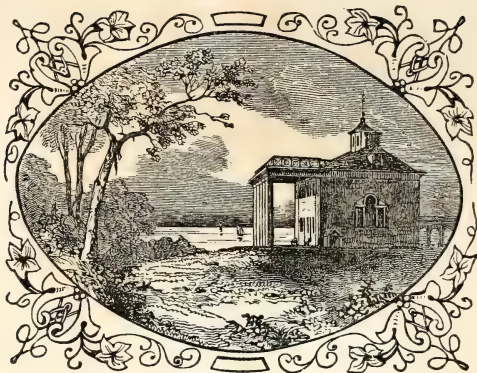
Meanwhile an insurrection against the state government had taken place in Massachusetts. On the 22d of August, 1786, a convention met at Hatfield to protest against several acts of the legislature. Very soon after a large body of insurgents took possession of the court-houses in Northampton and other counties. Daniel Shays was their leader; and although the general court immediately passed laws

for relieving the public burdens, he proceeded with his followers to Springfield, and on the 26th of December took possession of the court-house. He then became so troublesome that four thousand troops, under General Lincoln, were ordered against him. Previous to their march, Shays with eleven hundred men had attacked a body of twelve hundred troops under General Sheppard, but was driven away by a round of musketry. On the 4th of February, General Lincoln suddenly surprised them at Petersham, whence they were driven in great confusion, with the loss of one hundred and fifty prisoners. This terminated the rebellion.

The first efforts toward the formation of a permanent government were rather accidental than otherwise. Virginia recommended a convention of delegates to take into consideration the ineffective regulations concerning commerce, and this call was responded to by five other states. In September, 1786, the proposed meeting took place at Annapolis; but, feeling the limited extent of their powers, the delegates made but a few minor arrangements, and then adjourned after recommending to Congress the calling of a National Convention, with authority to adopt measures for the formation of a permanent government. Accordingly, Congress passed a resolution recommending a convention of delegates from all the states to be held at Philadelphia, for the purpose of revising the articles of confederation, and reporting to Congress and the several legislatures such alterations and provisions therein as should, when agreed to in Congress, and confirmed by the states, render the Federal constitution adequate to the emergencies of government and the preservation of the Union.



IN May, 1787, this body of able statesmen assembled at the place appointed, all the states except Rhode Island being represented. Washington was chosen president. After long deliberations they reported to Congress a draft of the present constitution, recommending its being submitted for ratification to a convention of delegates in each state, chosen by and from the people of each. This was complied with, and for several months the newly-reported instrument underwent a critical examination. During this period its provisions were ably explained and defended in a series of essays entitled the *Federalist*, written by Madison, Jay, and Hamilton. It was this circumstance that gave the title of *Federalists* to the political party who favoured the new constitution, while at the same time their opponents



MOUNT VERNON.

were styled Anti-Federalists. The consent of nine states was requisite to enable the new code to become the basis of national legislation; and as nearly a year intervened before this could be obtained, Congress employed that interval in adopting measures for organizing the new government. The first electors for the office of president were to be chosen on the first Wednesday in February, 1789, and vote for the person of their choice on the first Wednesday of March following.

The hopes of Congress and the nation were now centred upon Washington. In him the friends of the still tottering Constitution beheld the only resource which could give weight to the novel operation of so strange an experiment as that which they were about to perform. Even its opponents were in general willing to make a trial of it, could he be placed at its head. But it was with no small difficulty that his habitual distrust of himself, united to an ardent love of retirement, could be again overcome. Besides his reluctance again to embark on the stormy ocean of politics, he was extensively engaged in agricultural pursuits, for which he had ever entertained a passionate fondness. But the people were encouraged by the reflection that he had never refused the call of public duty. They therefore renewed their earnest appeals that he would give stability to the youthful nation by the weight of his influence, and at length he consented. On the day of election he received the unanimous vote of the electors, "and probably without a dissenting voice in



WASHINGTON TAKING THE OATH OF OFFICE, IN FRONT OF THE OLD FEDERAL HALL, NEW YORK.

the whole nation, was chosen the first President of the United States."

Washington received notice of his election, April 14, 1789, and sacrificing his long cherished hopes and feelings to the public wish, he left Mount Vernon on the 16th, for New York, where Congress was then in session. His journey was everywhere hailed by the spontaneous overflowing of love and veneration for his person, from an almost idolizing people. As he drew near different towns, the entire population hastened to meet him, and the chief citizens welcomed him to their homes. In the great cities, the bells rang, cannons were fired, and civic and military authorities paraded. At Elizabethtown Point, he was met by a deputation from Congress and the heads of departments, and his journey thence to New York was one triumphal procession. At the latter city, he was escorted by an immense concourse of people, among whom were the governor, and other officers of state, the clergy, foreign ministers, and others. In the evening, the city was brilliantly illuminated.

On the 30th of April, Chancellor Livingston administered to him the oath of office, in presence of both houses of Congress and thousands of citizens; and then the discharge of thirteen guns from the battery, and the cheers of assembled masses, announced that the new government was completely organized. The President then retired to the Senate chamber, and delivered an impressive address to each branch of the National Legislature, in which, after expressing distrust in his ability to execute the duties just conferred upon him, he declared his conviction that the same Great Being who had con-

ducted them through the long struggle for independence, would still continue to preside over their deliberations, and establish on a firm basis a form of government which other nations would be delighted to copy. Washington then retired to St. Paul's church, where the services of the day were closed by appropriate religious ceremonies. At night the city was again illuminated, and fireworks displayed.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

Among the first acts of Congress, was a law imposing duties on imported merchandise, and taxes on the tonnage of vessels. Its next important step was the constituting of an executive cabinet, composed of the secretaries of war, of state, and of the treasury. Washington appointed Alexander Hamilton Secretary of the Treasury, General Knox, Secretary of War, and Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State. John Jay became chief

justice, assisted by five associate judges.

On the adjournment of Congress, Washington made a tour through the New England states, where he was gratified not only by the flattering testimonies of esteem and affection heaped upon him by all classes of people, but also by the signs of returning prosperity and affluence. The effects of war were disappearing, agriculture was actively and profitably pursued, manufactures were increasing, towns springing up in every direction, and commerce becoming daily more extended. The heart of the great man was cheered by these tokens of order, peace, and contentment, which were so many unmistakable types of the country's future prosperity.



At the re-opening of the first Congress [January, 1790,] the President recommended, among other important subjects, a provision for the common defence, and for the regulation of the militia, a uniformity in weights, measures, and the currency; the advancement of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; the establishment of post-offices and post-roads, and the

encouragement of science and literature. A great part of the session was occupied by a consideration of a plan proposed by Secretary Hamilton, for discharging, out of the national treasury, the debt of twenty-five million dollars, due by the individual states, for expenses incurred during the war. The measure was finally adopted. Congress also decided to remove the seat of government, for ten years, to Philadelphia, and then to establish it permanently at some place on the Potomac. Next year, the site of the present capital was chosen by Washington, after whom it was named. The territory in which it stands is called the District of Columbia.

Meanwhile, the relations with foreign powers were in a rather unpromising condition. The Algerines not only seized our vessels, but kept the officers and crews in bondage for several years. England had as yet sent no minister, and even neglected to evacuate her military posts on the frontier. Spain refused to grant the navigation of the Mississippi to the western states, with the hope probably of detaching them from the confederacy and uniting them to herself. Both England and Spain were also active in fomenting disturbances between the Indians and the settlers of Ohio and Georgia.

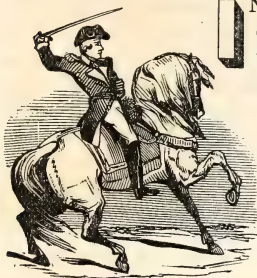


IN February, 1792, two new states, Vermont and Kentucky, were admitted into the federal compact. During the same session, Congress passed a bill for the incorporation of a National Bank, which, although strenuously opposed by Jefferson and his democratic adherents, was, after mature deliberation, signed by the President, and became a law. The bank was chartered for twenty years,

with a capital of ten millions. It was established at Philadelphia, with branches throughout the United States. To pay the interest on the national debt, Hamilton proposed duties on wine, tea, and other luxuries, with an excise on spirits distilled within the country. These were passed. The government being fully organized, public credit and commercial prosperity rapidly revived. Depreciated public paper soon rose to par; and the value of property was greatly enhanced.

In the autumn of 1790, General Harmer was sent with fifteen hundred men, of whom three hundred were regulars, to destroy the Indian settlements on the Sciota and Wabash. He detached Colonel Harden with six hundred men, to ascertain their position, but at his approach, the Indians fired their principal village and

fled to the woods. Being again detached with one hundred and eighty militia, he was attacked by the savages, his militia dispersed, and all the regulars, except seven, killed. Harmer then burned all the Indian towns on the Sciota, and again detached Harden, with three hundred militia and sixty regulars, to retrieve the loss of reputation in the former expeditions. Being again attacked at the confluence of the St. Mary's and St. Joseph's rivers, the militia were driven back after a resolute struggle, and fifty of the regulars killed. The whole party then retreated to Fort Washington.



IN 1791, General St. Clair, Governor of the North-west Territory, marched with three thousand men against the Indian villages on the Miami. Before sunrise, on the morning of November 4, he was surprised by a large body of Indians at his camp, about fifteen miles south of the villages. The militia, being in advance, were first attacked, and rushing in the usual disorder among the regulars under General Butler, composing the first

line, threw them also into confusion. The officers succeeded in restoring partial order; but so furious was the onset of the Indians, that most of the artillerymen were down, and the greater number of officers, including General Butler, either killed or mortally wounded. The commanding general was seriously indisposed, but he gave his orders with perfect coolness, and used every exertion to retrieve the fortunes of the day. Lieutenant-colonel Darke was ordered to charge with the bayonet, which he did in gallant style, driving the enemy about four hundred yards; but the want of a sufficient number of riflemen to press this advantage, deprived the Americans of any advantage from it. The Indians finally broke the right wing, seized the artillery, and penetrated the camp. Darke again charged, driving them from camp and recovering the artillery; but this success was but momentary, and the Americans soon commenced a disorderly retreat, in which they were pursued four miles. They halted at Fort Jefferson, thirty miles from the scene of action.

In this engagement the Americans lost thirty-eight officers, and five hundred and ninety-three men killed; twenty-one officers, and two hundred and forty-two men wounded. The enemy's loss was



GENERAL WAYNE DEFEATING THE INDIANS AT THE MIAMI.

probably but small. On hearing of this disaster, Congress, at the recommendation of the President, increased the national military force to five thousand men.

General St. Clair resigned the governorship of the North-western Territory, and was succeeded by General Wayne. In August, 1794, that officer marched with three thousand men to attack the Indians of the Miami. Reaching the Rapids on the 18th, he made to them an offer of peace; but being posted in large numbers behind a thick wood near a British fort, they treated the proposition with contempt. On the 20th, Wayne advanced upon them in two columns; and perceiving that they had extended their line over a distance of two miles in order to outflank him, he ordered his first column not to fire until they had advanced into the woods and roused the foe, and then to press them so closely with the bayonet as to give no time for re-loading. The second line was to support the first, Colonel Campbell's cavalry to charge the Indian left flank, and General Scott, with his mounted volunteers, their right. In less than an hour after the commencement of the action, the savages were completely routed, and driven a distance of two miles, up to the very guns of the British fort. The general then destroyed the settlements on the Miami, and so weakened the Indian resources that they were glad

to listen to terms. A treaty advantageous to both parties was concluded in the following year.

In the year 1791, the first census of the United States was taken, by which the total population, exclusive of Indians, was found to be nearly four millions. Of these, rather more than six hundred and ninety-five thousand were negro slaves. During the same year, Washington made a tour through the southern states, and was everywhere received as he had been at the north.

The second Congress assembled at Philadelphia in October, 1791. The principal acts of their first session was the establishment of a uniform militia system, the increase of the army, and the apportionment of the ratio of representation at one delegate for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants.



At the expiration of his first Presidential term in 1792, Washington expressed his ardent desire to retire from the cares of public life; but this his friends would not listen to, and yielding his wishes to the good of the country, he was again unanimously chosen President, with John Adams for Vice-President.

At this time the memorable French Revolution had attained to such a pitch of fanaticism as to threaten the peace of Europe, and render a neutral policy on the part of the United States extremely difficult. Washington's cabinet were divided between the opinions of Hamilton and Knox, to break entirely with the French Assembly, and that of Jefferson and Randolph, to receive their envoy, and fully acknowledge the obligations of the treaty concluded with Louis XVI. Without giving a full sanction to either of these views, Washington assented to receiving the minister, and it was agreed that all mention of the treaty should be suppressed.

The great bulk of the American people were in favour of lending assistance to France against foreign powers, especially England; and a participation in the European struggle was prevented only by the firm neutral policy of Washington, and the rash conduct of the French envoy. This individual was M. Genêt; and, instead of proceeding directly to the seat of government, he landed at Charleston, and began to fit out privateers to cruise against British merchantmen. In his journey to Philadelphia he was everywhere welcomed with enthusiasm, a circumstance that inspired him with most culpable vanity and assurance. When remonstrated with concerning the fitting out



GENERAL KNOX.

of privateers, he haughtily answered that his authority was in the late treaty, any infraction of which would be a violation of the "rights of man." Not satisfied with this, he fitted out another privateer from the port of Philadelphia, and even undertook to direct the civil government, by pronouncing, in opposition to the decisions of the President, the branches of government in which the constitution vested certain powers. To cap this climax of folly and insolence, he declared to Secretaries Knox and Hamilton his determination to appeal, in the case of the privateer at Philadelphia, from the decision of the President to that of the people.

Hitherto Citizen Genêt had been sustained by popular esteem, principally on account of the former friendship between the two countries; but this threat opened the eyes of the people to his villainy, and they warmly and unanimously declared against him. In 1794, he was recalled at the request of the President.

THE excise law, imposing a tax on domestic distilled liquors, met with great opposition in several parts of the country, especially in Pennsylvania, where whiskey was the most important item of trade. Public meetings in different counties west of the Alleghanies denounced the act as unconstitutional, and declared any person

who should undertake to enforce it inimical to the interests of the country.

This appeal was but too readily answered. General Neville had been made inspector of the western country, but his efforts to enforce the law were ineffectual. In the summer of 1792 the insurgents organized, and commenced so systematic an opposition to the measure, that Washington was obliged to issue a proclamation calling on the disaffected to stop their proceedings. Even this did not produce the desired effect. General Neville was fired upon while walking from his residence, his house attacked and partly destroyed, and himself driven beyond the mountains.

The exercise of armed force having now become absolutely necessary, Washington made a requisition upon the governors of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, for fifteen thousand militia. The call was immediately responded to; and Governor Lee, of Virginia, being appointed to the command, marched into the disaffected territory. Yet, still anxious to quell the rebellion without bloodshed, the President, on the 25th of September, issued a second proclamation, stating the impossibility of success on the part of the insurgents, offering protection to all who would confide in the government, exhorting the riotous to lay down their arms, and warning all persons of the consequences of any attempt to aid them. This proclamation, with the knowledge of Lee's approach, had such an effect, that on the arrival of the army in the infected neighbourhood, no insurgents were to be found. A detachment under Major-General Morgan was stationed there during the winter.



T the opening of the Third Congress in December, 1793, the President called the serious attention of Congress to measures of national defence, and the necessity of preparing for war, even while using every effort to prevent it. In a special message he directed the attention of members to the spoliation committed on our commerce by France and England, as well as the restraints of the latter power on the commerce in corn and other provisions. Congress warmly responded to his wishes in these respects, taking care, at the same time, to give as little offence as possible to either of the belligerent powers.

About his time Mr. Jefferson resigned his office of Secretary of State, and was succeeded by Mr. Randolph. Already Great Bri-



JOHN JAY.

tain and the United States were on the eve of another war. England still refused to surrender some of the forts in the western country; her cruisers stopped and searched American vessels; her admiralty issued an order that vessels carrying flour, corn, or meal, and bound to any port in France, or occupied by French armies, should be stopped and taken to England; and her officers continued to exercise upon American crews the odious act of impressment.

Washington clearly foresaw the bad consequences of a second struggle with the old enemy; and, anxious to prevent it, he despatched Mr. Jay as envoy extraordinary to the British court. That gentleman succeeded in effecting a treaty, by which England agreed to surrender the western forts, and to allow American trade to the West Indies; but as the other provisions were not entirely satisfactory, Washington for some time refused to sign it. He finally, however, ratified the treaty, with consent of two-thirds of the Senate. It met with great opposition throughout the country, and was stigmatized by the opposition party as an act of ingratitude against France. Meanwhile Hamilton and Knox had resigned their seats in the cabinet; and thus the President was left almost alone to combat the torrent of opposition to the treaty. He remained, however, firm; and

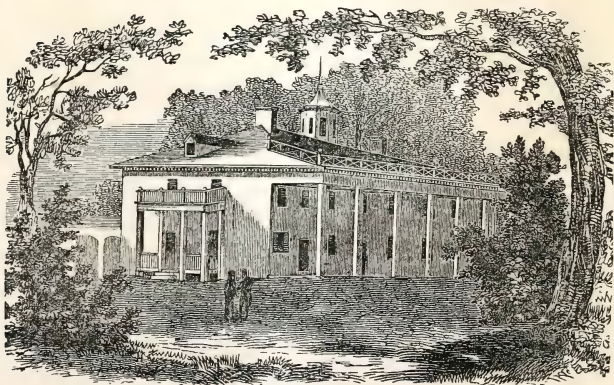
in a little time, the beneficial effects of the measure became fully apparent.

Before the next session of Congress, treaties had been concluded with Algiers, with the Indians beyond the Ohio, and with Spain,—the latter power yielding the important points of boundary claimed by the United States, the right of navigating the Mississippi, and a depot at New Orleans. The only power still retaining a hostile attitude was France. A new envoy had been sent from that country who, by inflammatory addresses, contrived to inspire the people with enthusiasm in his favour. He had even received instructions from the French Directory, that in case President Washington could not be drawn into a rupture with England, he was then to address Congress, and appeal, as Genêt had done, to the people. At the same time the Directory passed regulations by which American vessels were seized, and their cargoes confiscated. In 1796, Mr. Monroe, American minister at Paris, was recalled, and Charles C. Pinckney appointed in his place.



BEFORE any adjustment of this difficulty could be effected, Washington's second term of office expired, and no consideration could induce him to permit another re-election. One of his principal reasons was, that eight years was a sufficient length of time for one individual to fill the highest office of a free elective government. In September, 1796, he announced to his countrymen in a valedictory address his intention of retiring from public life. In this celebrated paper he dwells chiefly on the importance of preserving the unity of the republic, on the baneful effects of party spirit, the necessity of peace with foreign powers, the happy workings of the new government, and especially on the inseparable connection between national prosperity and moral rectitude. For soundness of political views, fervent patriotism, paternal affection for the people, and humble dependence on that Supreme Governor who controls all nations, this valedictory of Washington is perhaps without a rival in history. It excited throughout the country the deepest feelings of veneration for its author. Several of the state legislatures inserted it in their journals, and passed resolutions expressive of their exalted sense of the services and character of Washington, and their emotions at his retiring from office.

Washington met Congress for the last time on the 7th of December, 1796. In his speech on that occasion he adverted to the late treaties, the necessity of strengthening the naval force, of encouraging agriculture and manufactures, and of establishing a national university and a military academy. The relations with the French republic were made the subject of a special message. In the following October took place the election for his successor, which, after a close and spirited canvass, gave the first office in the republic to Mr. John Adams, and the second to Mr. Thomas Jefferson. The former was the candidate of the Federal party, the latter of the Republican. They were inaugurated in the presence of Washington, on the 4th of March, 1797, and immediately entered upon their respective duties. The venerable ex-President then retired to his seat at Mount Vernon.



MOUNT VERNON



JOHN ADAMS.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS.

THE services of Mr. Adams, as an earnest advocate in the Continental Congress for the declaration of independence, his defence of the Constitution, and his acknowledged ability and patriotism, fully entitled him to the confidence of his fellow-citizens in the important office to which he was now elevated.

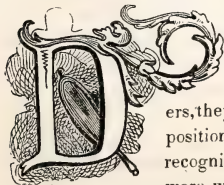
In the preceding year General Pinckney had been appointed minister plenipotentiary to the French republic. The Directory refused to receive him until after the redress of their alleged grievances by the American government; and this high-handed measure was speedily followed by a notice to General Pinckney to quit the territories of the republic, and orders to the French cruisers to capture American vessels wherever found.

On receiving intelligence of these hostile proceedings, President Adams called a meeting of Congress [June 15, 1797]. On meeting them, the President, in his opening speech, stated the unprovoked aggressions of the French government, and their insidious attempts to disunite the American people; and urged upon Congress the necessity of providing for the national defence, declaring at the same time his intention to attempt an accommodation of the dispute by negotiation.

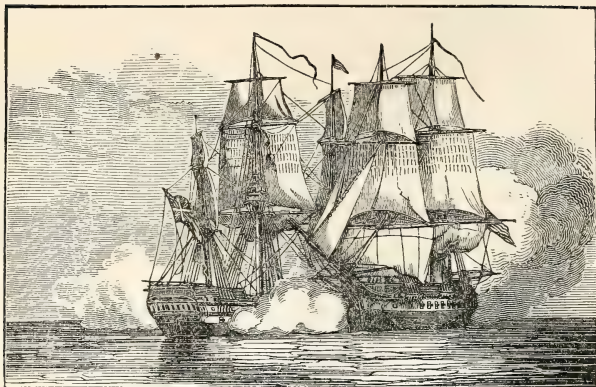


COMMODORE MURRAY.

Mr. Adams now appointed Messrs. Pinckney, Gerry, and Marshall, envoys to the French republic, with instructions to pursue peace and reconciliation by all means compatible with national honour. While the result of this mission was anxiously awaited by the American people, the French aggressions on our commerce being still continued, an act of Congress was passed, [July 7, 1797,] declaring the existing treaties with France no longer obligatory on the United States, because openly and repeatedly violated by the acts of the French government.



DISPATCHES received from the American envoys in France, in the spring of 1798, announced that while the Directory had delayed to accredit the commissioners, they had approached them informally with propositions demanding money as a condition of their recognition. The Directory and the ministers were willing, besides, to receive a private bribe through M. Talleyrand. These attempts to tamper with the envoys



CAPTURE OF L'INSURGENTE

being treated with merited contempt, they had been ordered to quit the territories of the republic. Intelligence of these proceedings, characterized as they were by a mixture of meanness and insolence, excited indignation throughout the country, and the rallying cry of the nation was, *Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute.*

Congress immediately proceeded to raise an army, with Washington for lieutenant-general and commander-in-chief; to pass alien and sedition laws as a defence against French influence at home; and to issue letters of marque and reprisal for the defence of American commerce. The alien and sedition law was powerfully opposed; but the war, like most wars, was popular. Its feats, however were destined to be confined to the ocean.

In September, 1798, Commodore Murray sailed for the West Indies, the principal theatre of the French depredations, with a squadron composed of the *Norfolk*, *Montezuma*, and *Retaliation*. In November this squadron encountered the French frigates *Volontaire* and *L'Insurgente*; and three other ships appearing in an opposite direction at the same time, Captain Bainbridge, in the *Retaliation*, was detached to examine the French frigates, who were supposed to be British. He was captured; but, by misrepresenting the force of the other two small vessels of the squadron, he prevented the French from pursuing them, and thus enabled Murray to escape.

Commodore Truxtun was more fortunate than Commodore Murray. In the frigate *Constellation* [February 9, 1799] he encountered the French frigate *L'Insurgente*; and, after a spirited action, captured her. Her force was forty guns, and four hundred and nine men, of whom seventy were killed. The *Constellation* carried thirty-eight guns, and three hundred and nine men, of whom three were wounded, and none killed.

Several other captures of French cruisers were made by Truxtun, Barry, Tingey, and Decatur; but the most remarkable action of



COMMODORE TRUXTUN.

the war was that between the *Constellation*, still under Truxtun's command, and the French ship *Vengeance*, carrying no less than fifty-two guns. This celebrated engagement took place on the 2d of February, 1800, and lasted from eight o'clock, P. M., till half-past one. The French ship was reduced to a sinking condition, and struck her colours; but the mainmast of the *Constellation* being nearly cut off, Trux-

tun was unable to secure his prize. He lost fourteen killed, and twenty-five wounded. The *Vengeance* had fifty killed, and one hundred and ten wounded. This is the victory for which Commodore Truxtun received the gold medal from Congress.

The other naval actions of this war were quite numerous, but comparatively unimportant, although they afforded Hull, Porter, and others, opportunities for giving promise of their future distinction in the annals of the navy.

These active measures soon brought the insolent French Directory to their senses. They made overtures for negotiating a peace, and Messrs. Ellsworth, Henry, and Van Murray, were sent to France as envoys. When they arrived at Paris, the Directory had been deposed, and Napoleon soon concluded an adjustment of all disputes.

Ere the war terminated, Washington was removed from the scene of his earthly glories. He died, after a very short illness, occasioned by cold, and a consequent inflammation of the throat, at Mount Vernon, on the 14th of December, 1799. Neither Congress nor the nation were wanting in that universal tribute of mourning and vene-

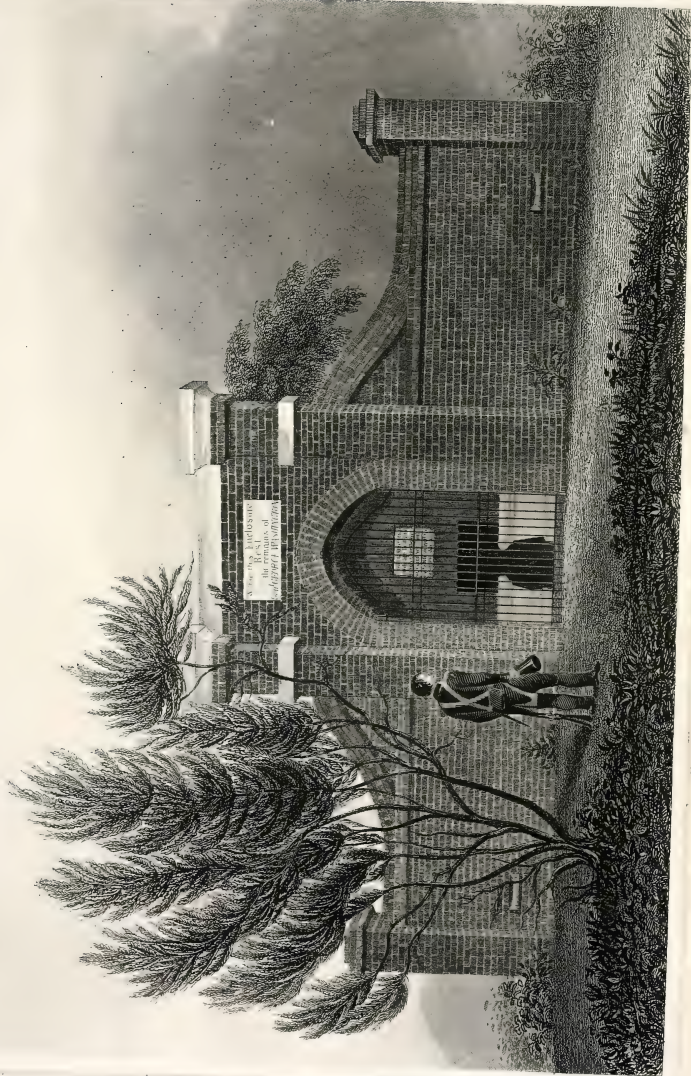


TOMB OF WASHINGTON.

ration due to the illustrious founder of their common freedom. Perhaps the most sensible mark of this veneration was their giving his name to the federal city, the site of which he had himself selected. In November, 1800, Congress opened its sittings at Washington for the first time. Their sessions had been held first at New York, and afterwards at Philadelphia.

Mr. Adams was not elected to office a second time. When the electoral votes were counted, he was in the minority, and Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr, who had been proposed by the opposition as candidates for President and Vice-president, were found to have an equal number of votes. As the Constitution then stood, this state of things referred the election to the House of Representatives, and Burr was enabled, with some prospect of success, to intrigue for defeating the popular will. But the election was finally decided in favour of Jefferson, and on the 4th of March, 1801, he was inaugurated.







THOMAS JEFFERSON.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON.



As the political tenets of Mr. Jefferson were directly opposite to those of his predecessor, a change was made among the cabinet officers. Mr. Madison was appointed Secretary of State ; immediately before his retirement, Adams had appointed twelve new judges, in pursuance of a recent act of Congress. By the recommendation of Mr. Jefferson, that body now passed an act abolishing this judiciary, and re-organizing the whole judiciary department. Another act placed the laws of its organization on an enlarged basis.

In 1801, the second census of the United States showed a population of more than five million three hundred thousand souls, an augmentation of exports from nineteen to ninety-four millions of dollars, and an increase of the revenue from five to thirteen millions, in ten years. These gave to the people the most satisfactory proof of the resources of the country as developed under the new constitution.

In the same year, Spain ceded Louisiana to France, a measure which soon began to produce uneasiness to the American government. Owing to the hostile disposition of the Directory, it was



CAPTAIN MERRIWETHER LEWIS.

feared that the western people would either be engaged in constant outbreaks with the French settlers, concerning the all-important navigation of the Mississippi, or be induced to secede from the Union and join with Louisiana. The irritation of the western people was further increased by an act of the Spanish authorities in New Orleans, interdicting the citizens of the United States from the use of the port of that city as a place of deposit for their merchandise. In order to obviate, if possible, the evil consequences of these aggressions, the President despatched Mr. Monroe to Paris, to make in conjunction with Mr. Livingston, a treaty for the purchase of New Orleans or Louisiana.

Meanwhile, Ohio had been admitted into the Union as a separate state, and began its astonishing career of prosperity and population. In January, 1803, Congress, at the recommendation of the President, authorized the fitting out of an expedition for exploring the country west of the Rocky Mountains. Captain Merriwether Lewis

was selected to command the party, who chose as associate in command, Captain Clarke. After much delay, the expedition left the banks of the Mississippi, May 14, 1804. A measure of the President, selling a part of the bank stock owned by government, met with determined opposition from the federal party, as it was supposed to be a preliminary to the vetoing of the bank charter in 1809. An attempt to restore the District of Columbia to the states of Virginia and Maryland was defeated by the opposition of the inhabitants. An attempt was soon afterwards made to induce the President to take forcible possession of New Orleans, and place there a sufficient militia force to defend the navigation of the Mississippi; but this was soon afterwards abandoned.



HIS state of dissension and anxiety was ended by the reception of most unexpected news from France. War had suddenly occurred between that power and England, and so empty was the French treasury, that Napoleon gladly caught at the overtures of the American government, and, instead of selling merely New Or-

leans, agreed to yield the whole of Louisiana for the sum of eleven and a quarter millions of dollars, in six per cent. stock. A treaty to this effect had been executed by the American envoys, and thus a territory computed at one million square miles, was obtained by the new republic. In the same year, the Kaskaskia Indians surrendered to government their valuable territory, lying along the Mississippi, Ohio, and Illinois rivers.

These events had scarcely transpired, when a difficulty arose from another quarter. In the year 1800, the Bashaw of Tripoli showed a disposition to seize our richly laden vessels in the Mediterranean, and he now complained of having been treated with less regard than the other Barbary states. On the 5th of May, he addressed a letter to the President, demanding large subsidies from the American government, and at the same time threatened Mr. Cathcart, our minister at Tripoli, that if a satisfactory answer did not arrive in six months, he would declare war. Twelve months after, [May 12, 1801,] he announced that he had declared war, and would take down the American flag-staff in two days. This was done, and Mr. Cathcart sailed for the United States. Tunis and Algiers determined to assist the bashaw, hoping thereby to obtain some of the rich prizes which they most sanguinely dreamed of capturing.



COMMODORE DALE.

Before news of the declaration of war was received in America, government had fitted out a fleet in anticipation of such an event, and to protect our commerce. It was composed of the frigates *President*, *Philadelphia*, *Essex*, and the schooner *Enterprise*, the whole under Commodore Dale. On the 1st of July, the commodore arrived off the coast of Gibraltar, where he met the high

admiral of Tripoli, with two vessels. This functionary denied that his government was at war with the United States; and unable to receive more authentic information, Dale sailed to Tripoli. Ascertaining the situation of affairs, he immediately commenced a blockade of the port.

On the 1st of August, Lieutenant Sterret, on his way to Malta in the *Enterprise*, encountered the Tripolitan ship-of-war *Tripoli*, of twelve guns, under Rais Mahomet Sous. After an incessant cannonading of three hours' length, within pistol-shot range, the enemy struck. His loss was twenty killed and thirty wounded; Sterret did not lose a man. On the 21st of August, Dale captured a Greek ship bound for Tripoli, laden with merchandise, and having on board one Tripolitan officer, twenty-four soldiers, fourteen merchants, and five women. An exchange of prisoners was effected with the bashaw, after which the commodore abandoned the blockade and sailed for Tripoli.



IN February, 1802, Congress authorized the President to take immediate measures for the protection of commerce in the Mediterranean, and for the fitting out of ships to subdue, seize, and make prize of all vessels, goods, and effects belonging to the Bashaw of Tripoli or his subjects, and to send the same into port. He accordingly ordered to the

relief of Commodore Dale, the *Enterprise*, of twelve guns, Captain Sterret; the *Constellation*, thirty-six, Captain Murray; the *Chesapeake*, forty-four, Captain Morris; the *Adams*, thirty-two, Captain Campbell; the *New York*, thirty-two, Captain Barron; and the

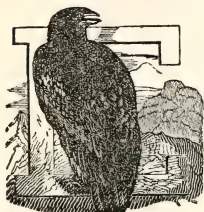


GENERAL EATON.

John Adams, thirty-two, Captain Rodgers. These vessels were to sail as soon as they could be equipped, the whole under the command of Captain Morris. That officer reached Gibraltar in May, and during the two following months was engaged in blockading the enemy at that port, and watching the Emperor of Morocco, who had also declared war. But a treaty was concluded with him in August, and Morris sailed for Tripoli. Being prevented from approaching the coast by a violent storm of wind, he bore away to Tunis, the bey of which country had lately assumed a hostile attitude. Several audiences with this personage had resulted in nothing but mutual ill-feeling; and General Eaton, the American minister, was even preparing to leave the country.

A project of rather a romantic character had for some time been carried on by Eaton, in order to facilitate operations against the Bashaw of Tripoli. This ruler was the younger of two brothers, but had unlawfully seized the throne and driven his relative into

exile. Hamet, the defrauded prince, seems to have been popular among the Tripolitans; and Eaton conceived the project of espousing his cause, and thus avenge the reigning bashaw's insults to the United States by driving him from the throne. Hamet eagerly closed with this scheme; and the bashaw becoming alarmed, made overtures of reconciliation with his brother, offering him the government of Derne. He would have consented to this, but for the representations of Mr. Eaton, who induced him soon afterwards to sail for Malta. Here he remained for a time, while Eaton returned to the United States, in order to induce his government to lend the necessary aid for placing the rightful sovereign on the throne of Tripoli. Shortly after, his place as consul was supplied by Mr. Cathcart while Eaton received the appointment of naval agent for the Barbary States, with the view of aiding the operations of the Mediterranean squadron against Tripoli, by forwarding the rights of the exiled Hamet bashaw. In June, he again embarked for Africa, in the frigate *John Adams*, which, with the *President*, *Congress*, *Essex*, and *Constellation*, constituted a reinforcement to the former squadron.



EARLY in June, 1803, Commodore Morris made proposals of peace to the ruler of Tripoli. He modestly asked two hundred thousand Spanish milled dollars, and the expenses of the war, before he would embrace the commodore's overtures. Morris then offered him a present of five thousand dollars, but the verbal answer of the haughty prince was, "that the business was at an end, and that he must depart immediately." Soon after, Morris was recalled by government, and his conduct during the expedition submitted to the examination of a court-martial, by which he was censured for inactive and dilatory conduct.

During the blockade of Tripoli by the *John Adams*, under Captain Rodgers, she captured the *Meshonda*, of twenty guns, belonging to the Emperor of Morocco, who had purchased her of the bashaw. Being sent to Tunis with a cargo, she violated the blockade, and was taken.

On the 27th of June, Captain Rodgers observed a large vessel anchored within the Bay of Tripoli, while a number of gun-boats filled with armed men, approached to her relief. About nine o'clock A. M., of the 28th, a fire was opened upon her from the *John Adams*,

which being returned, the action continued on both sides for about forty-five minutes. The firing then ceased until a quarter before ten, when it was renewed with such fury that the enemy's ship blew up, bearing with her many of the crew. This vessel mounted twenty-two guns, and was the finest one in the Tripolitan service.

Meanwhile, a reinforcement to the Mediterranean service had been despatched from the United States, under Commodore Preble, who was to command the whole force in that quarter.

On the night of August 26, Captain Bainbridge, in the Philadelphia, fell in with a ship and a brig, both Moorish vessels. The former proved to be the Meshboha, of twenty-two guns and one hundred men. On intimating that the brig was an American, Captain Rodgers gave orders to search the main vessel, when the captain and part of the crew of the American brig Celia were found to be confined below deck. Upon this discovery, the officers of the Meshboha were ordered on board the Philadelphia, and their cruiser taken into custody. Next day the Celia, which had escaped, was recaptured. The John Adams then sailed for Morocco, where, about the middle of October, Bainbridge concluded a treaty with the emperor, restoring to him the Meshonda and Meshboha.



COMMODORE BAINBRIDGE.

Soon after this event, Captain Bainbridge, while pursuing a Tripolitan vessel, ran aground on the rocks near the city, and was unable to get his vessel off. He was almost immediately attacked by the enemy's gun-boats, and after a contest of five hours, obliged to strike his colours. The captain and crew were taken on shore, but all efforts to remove the Philadelphia were unavailing.

On the 3d of February, 1804, Stephen Decatur, in the Siren and Intrepid, was sent by Commodore Preble, commandant of the Mediterranean squadron, to burn the grounded vessel. This he accomplished in the Intrepid, on the night of the 16th, although all the guns of the frigate were mounted and charged, and she lay within half gunshot of the bashaw's castle and principal battery. Two Tripolitan cruisers were lying within two cables' length, on the star



board quarter, while all the batteries on shore were opened on the assailants. But one American was wounded. It was one of the most daring and gallant achievements of the war, and Decatur received from Congress a sword and captain's commission, and each of his officers and crew two months' pay.

On the 21st of July, Commodore Preble, with six vessels and eight gun-boats, carrying one thousand and sixty men, appeared before the harbour of Tripoli, which was defended by nineteen gun-boats, two galleys, two schooners of eight guns each, a brig of ten guns, land batteries mounting one hundred and fifteen heavy cannon, and by twenty-five thousand Arabs and Turks. On the 3d of August, the first bombardment of Tripoli commenced, accompanied by a general attack upon the gun-boats in the harbour. A tremendous fire was kept up for some hours upon the town, and answered by the enemy's whole train of artillery. Meanwhile, with the most daring bravery, Decatur attacked the gun-boats in the harbour, and succeeded in capturing or destroying several, although so close was the contest that the gallant captain's life was several times in imminent danger, and on one occasion he had but nine men against thirty-six. The Americans lost Lieutenant I. Decatur killed, and thirteen men wounded. The loss of the enemy was much greater.

On the 7th of August, the squadron approached the harbour, in order to silence a seven gun battery. This was effected, although one of the captured gun-boats was blown up, carrying with her Lieutenant Caldwell, Midshipman Dorsey, and ten others. In this second attack, forty-eight shells and five hundred twenty-four pound-shot were thrown into the town. On the night of the 24th, another attack was made upon the city, which lasted until daylight. It was renewed at half-past one of the 28th, when a warm action took place between thirteen of the enemy's gun-boats, supported by their batteries and the gun-boats and smaller vessels of the squadron. One of the enemy's vessels was sunk, and two more were disabled. The cannonade was renewed on the 3d of September, with much injury to the bashaw's castle.

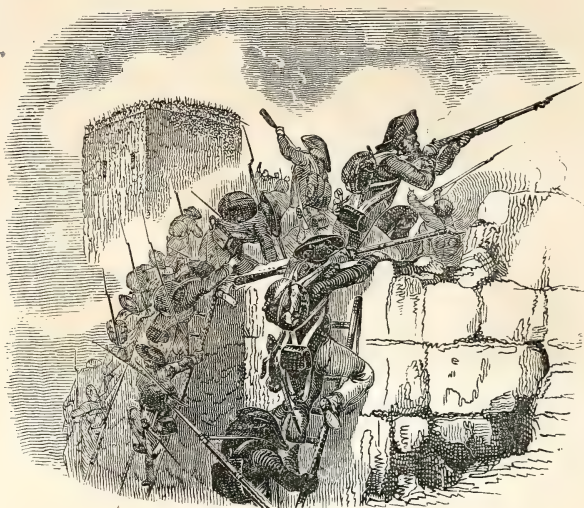


BOMBARDMENT OF TRIPOLI

About this time, the *Intrepid* was sent into the harbour of Tripoli to destroy the flotilla, and throw a quantity of shells into the town. Captain Somers, and Lieutenants Israel and Wadsworth, volunteered for this dangerous service. One hundred barrels of powder, and a hundred and fifty shells, were put in her hold, with a contrivance by which it could be fired, and yet allow the crew time to escape. When near the place of destination, she suddenly blew up, carrying with her, as is supposed, the three officers. The consternation produced among the enemy by this event is indescribable. No clue to unravel the fate of the heroic adventurers was ever obtained.

On the 10th of September, Commodore Barron arrived with the *President* and *Constellation*, and assumed command. Preble returned to the United States.

Meanwhile, General Eaton, having returned to the Mediterranean, had been prosecuting his scheme in favour of Hamet bashaw, and at the time of the last bombardment of Tripoli, actually threatened to drive the reigning bashaw from the throne, after raising a small army in Egypt, consisting of Mamelukes, Arabs, and a number of adventurers. On the 3d of March, they left Alexandria for Derne travelling through the Libyan desert, and encountering hardships of every kind. On the 25th of April, they appeared before the latter



CAPTURE OF DERNE.

city, where Eaton offered the governor terms of amity, but received the haughty answer, "My head or yours!"

On the morning of the 27th, the battle commenced by the Tripolitans firing upon the *Argus*, *Hornet*, and *Nautilus*, which had stood in to second the attack. The enemy's naval batteries were soon silenced, but on land they gained so much advantage, that in order to prevent discouragement, Eaton charged their works with fifty men. Although the enemy numbered seven to one, they fled, leaving their battery in the hands of the Americans. During the charge, Eaton was wounded in the wrist.

This success was followed by the capture of the bey's palace, which placed the city in possession of the Americans. The bey escaped, and while fleeing toward Tripoli, was met by about one thousand of the bashaw's troops, who had been despatched to his relief. This force pressed towards Derne, and after defeating about one hundred of Hamet's cavalry, entered the city, and forced their way to the bey's palace. Here they were repulsed by the American batteries, and driven into the fields. Soon after, they were



MOBILE

totally defeated by Hamet's troops, in a battle fought in the Barbary fashion, without the intervention of either Americans or Europeans. But this fair prospect of driving the reigning bashaw from the throne, was dissolved by the conclusion of a treaty with that prince by Commodore Rodgers, who had superseded Barron. By this instrument the Americans secured to themselves all that had been demanded at the opening of war, together with a complete amnesty and suitable provision during life for Hamet and his followers.

Commodore Bainbridge and his crew were restored to liberty after a mortifying captivity of more than nineteen months.



AARON BURR

year the President organized the district of Mobile for the collection

of duties on imposts and tonnage, having Fort Stoddert for the port of entry and delivery.

In July, 1804, occurred the memorable duel between General Hamilton and the Vice-President, Aaron Burr. Certain offensive publications having appeared in one of the journals of the day, Colonel Burr suspected Hamilton of being the author, and in a letter required his acknowledgment or denial of the fact. Hamilton refusing to give either, received a challenge, accepted it, met Burr, and fell at the first fire. No similar event ever caused so much sensation throughout the United States as the news of this fatal duel. By his great talents, powerful eloquence, and gentlemanly conduct, Hamilton had become the idol of the federal party, and the admiration of all his countrymen. Extraordinary honours were paid to his memory, while for the future Burr was regarded with detestation.

On the 4th of March, 1805, Mr. Jefferson entered upon his second term of office. Burr was succeeded in the Vice-Presidency by

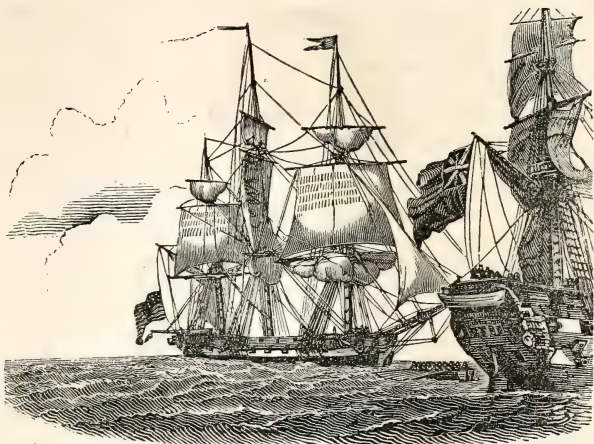


GEORGE CLINTON.

George Clinton, of New York. At this time the aggressions of Great Britain upon the seamen and commerce of the United States called for serious interference on the part of government. The strict neutrality maintained by Congress had secured to our merchants a lucrative and growing trade in the West Indies, which soon excited the envy of England. Many large vessels trading to the French colonies were captured and condemned by the

British. In May, 1806, some of the principal French ports were declared in a state of blockade; while in November, of the same year, Napoleon issued his famous Berlin decree, declaring all the British islands under blockade. Neutral vessels were thus prohibited from trading with either country.

At the same time England continued to search American vessels, and impress their seamen into her own service. A most aggravated instance of this occurred in June, 1807. On the 6th of March previous, the British consul at Norfolk had demanded of Captain Decatur three of the Chesapeake's crew, deserters, as he alleged, from the British ship *Melampus*. On inquiry they were



AFFAIR OF THE CHESAPEAKE.

found to be native born Americans. On the 22d of April the Chesapeake sailed for the Mediterranean, under Commodore Barron ; but, after passing through the British squadron, she was stopped by the English ship Berkeley, and an officer sent on board demanding the three men. On his returning to the Leopard with a refusal of the demand, that vessel opened a heavy fire, which continued thirty minutes, when the Chesapeake struck her colours. She was then boarded, her crew mustered, and four men carried to the British vessel. The Chesapeake lost three men killed, and eighteen wounded ; and was so much injured in her hull and rigging as to be obliged to return to Hampton Roads.

News of this outrage was received throughout the country with a burst of indignation. The inhabitants of Norfolk and Portsmouth passed unanimous resolutions discontinuing all communication between the shore and the British ships. At the same time two hundred hogsheads of water, for the use of the squadron, were destroyed by the people ; and to the consequent threat of the English captain to stop all vessels trading to Norfolk, he was answered that peace or war was at his pleasure. On the 2d of July, the President issued a proclamation forbidding communication with British armed vessels,



GENERAL WILKINSON.

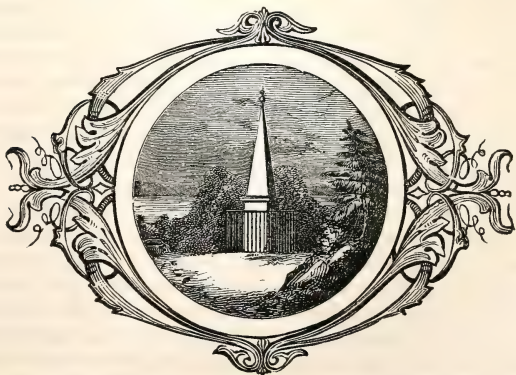
unless in distress or conveying despatches. They were interdicted from the waters of the United States, two thousand militia were ordered to the defence of Norfolk, and one hundred thousand to hold themselves in readiness for service. Congress was summoned to meet on the 26th of October. The American minister in London having demanded satisfaction for the insult, Berkeley's act was disavowed; yet he was shortly afterwards elevated to a more important station.

A singular and still unexplained event had taken place previous to this time, which for a while caused much sensation throughout the United States. This was the supposed treason of Aaron Burr. After his retirement from the political arena of the Union, he is said to have attempted the secession of the Western States, so as to form them into an independent nation; but failing, he endeavoured to persuade the settlers to invade Mexico. This received some encouragement. He was, however, narrowly watched by government; and General Wilkinson, commandant at New Orleans, having transmitted

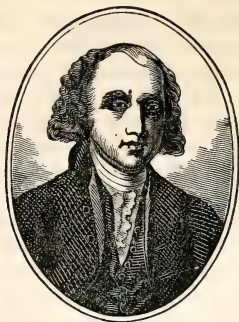
to the President an account of the whole enterprise, Jefferson, on the 27th of November, issued a proclamation forbidding all citizens to lend it their encouragement, and ordering the stoppage of the boats intended for the enterprise. Burr was arrested in the February following, and carried to Richmond for trial in the federal circuit court. On the 23d of June a true bill was found against him, and he was committed to prison, but permitted to remain at his hotel under a guard. His trial took place, August 3, 1805; and on the 31st he was acquitted, on the ground that his offence did not come under jurisdiction of the court. The growing difficulties with foreign powers enabled him to escape further prosecution, and he soon after sailed for England.

In December, 1807, an embargo was imposed by government upon American vessels, forbidding them to leave their ports, for fear of capture. This law continued during the remainder of Jefferson's administration, but was very injurious to the eastern states, and rendered the administration unpopular in that portion of the country.

In 1808, Jefferson announced his intention of retiring from the presidential chair. The ensuing election gave the office of chief magistrate to James Madison, the candidate of the republican party. Mr. Clinton was re-elected for the Vice-Presidency. They were inaugurated March 4, 1809; after which the ex-President retired to his seat at Monticello, where the evening of his life was passed amidst the quiet of literary pursuits.



TOMB OF GENERAL HAMILTON



JAMES MADISON

CHAPTER XXXIX.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON.



HE opposition to the embargo act of the late administration was so decided, that one of the first acts of Congress after the inauguration of Mr. Madison was to repeal it, but at the same time prohibiting all intercourse with either France or England. Taking advantage of this measure.

Mr. Erskine, the British ambassador, proposed an adjustment of the difficulties between the two nations on the basis of full satisfaction for the Chesapeake insult, with the restoration of hermen, the withdrawal of the orders in council so far as they related to the United States; the appointment of an envoy extraordinary, with power to conclude a treaty respecting all the points at issue. This was ratified by the President, who immediately issued a proclamation permitting the resumption of trade with Great Britain. But this pacific appearance was dispelled by news from England disavowing the act of her minister, and ordering his recall. The President's proclamation was consequently revoked.

Mr. Erskine was succeeded by Mr. Jackson. That gentleman, on being asked by the Secretary of State why the British government had disavowed the proceedings of his predecessor, answered that the latter had exceeded his instructions, and insinuated that the

American government had been aware of that fact at the time. This insulting language was noticed in energetic terms by the Secretary, but Jackson replied only by repeating the charge. This personage [minister Jackson] even went so far as to make this declaration for the third time. He was then informed that for the purpose of facilitating pacific overtures, no communication would in future be received from him. His government then recalled him, and at the expiration of a year and a half appointed Mr. Foster to succeed him.

Before the arrival of Mr. Foster, another exciting event had occurred to threaten the prospects of amity and commerce with England. On the 16th of May, 1811, Commodore Rodgers, in the frigate *President*, came in sight of a vessel off the capes of Virginia. On coming up with her in the evening, the commodore was unable to ascertain her nation; and, on hailing her twice, he received for answer a shot in his mainmast. The fire was returned, and in thirty minutes the stranger was silenced. She proved to be the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, of eighteen tons. Thirty-two of her men were killed or wounded, and the vessel was considerably injured.



On the 1st of May, 1810, Congress passed an act declaring that if either Great Britain or France should, before the 3d of March, 1811, so revoke or modify her decrees, as that they should cease to violate the neutral commerce of the United States, which fact the President should declare by proclamation; and if the other nation should not within three months thereafter revoke its edicts in like manner;—then the non-intercourse law should, after the expiration of three months from the date of the proclamation, be revived, and have full force and effect so far as regarded the nation neglecting to revoke them, and that the restrictions imposed by that act should be discontinued in relation to the nation so revoking or modifying her decrees. France, ever ready to catch at any thing which might humble her rival, declared through her minister [August 5, 1810] that the decrees of Berlin and Milan were revoked;—at the same time it was explicitly stated that the revocation had been made in full confidence that the condition would be enforced against Great Britain, if she did not annul her orders in council and renounce the new principles of blockade.

On the 2d of November, 1810, the President announced that all restrictions on the trade of the United States with France had ceased.

Great Britain, however, refused to repeal her orders in council until the 23d of June, 1812. Previous to this tardy and ungraceful act, Congress passed laws raising the military force to thirty-one thousand men, completing the military establishment previously existing, and authorizing the President to accept the services of volunteer military corps and other armed forces. The Chesapeake, Constellation, and Adams, were at the same time fitted for sea. On the 14th of March the President was authorized to borrow on the credit of the United States any sum not exceeding eleven millions of dollars.

At this time another foe reappeared on our western border, and commenced a series of daring incursions similar to those which,

during the war of independence, had almost depopulated that fertile region. The Indians, led by the daring Tecumseh and his fanatical brother, the Prophet, united themselves with the emissaries of Great Britain to excite a war against the United States. At a great council held at Vincennes, by General Harrison, governor of the Indiana territory, in 1811, Tecumseh not only declared that the white man had no right to the soil, and that as it belonged to the red men in common, no single tribe could dispose of the part it occupied, but even



TECUMSEH.

grasped his arms in the most determined manner; and, but for the firmness of the governor, and the presence of his soldiers, he would probably have been murdered. After this affair the outrages committed by the savages were so numerous, that General Harrison, with a small force of regulars and militia, marched into the Indian country, and on the 6th of November appeared before the Prophet's town. Here he held a conference with some of the principal chiefs, who agreed that both parties should remain quiet until the following morning, when a second council was to convene and agree upon terms of peace. Notwithstanding this friendly appearance, Harrison, with



COUNCIL OF VINCENNES.

the sagacity for which he was ever remarkable, discerned symptoms of treachery among the Indians; and, accordingly, posting his little army in an advantageous position, near a place called Tippecanoe, he ordered the troops to sleep upon their arms, and in case of attack to maintain their ground at all hazards. The event justified this precaution. Before daylight, on the morning of the 7th, the savages furiously attacked the left flank, drove in the picket, and rushed upon the camp. But, encouraged by their general, the regulars and mounted riflemen gallantly maintained their ground, while Major Daviess, with his cavalry, charged their whole line. The latter movement was unsuccessful; and, at daylight, the Americans beheld themselves nearly surrounded by the enemy, who were pouring in a most deadly fire. At this juncture an almost simultaneous charge was made with fixed bayonets by the companies of Captain Snelling and Major Wells, and the enemy were dislodged. The mounted riflemen then dashed forward, and drove the Indians into a marsh. About the same time Captain Cook and Lieutenant Larabie charged on the right, so that the savages being, driven at all points, were at length completely routed.

In this hard-fought action the Americans lost, in killed and

wounded, one hundred and eighty-eight; the general estimated the loss of the Indians at one hundred and fifty. Major Daviess, eminent in Kentucky as a lawyer and

an orator, was amongst the slain. The battle was followed by the burning of the Prophet's town, the dispersion of the hostile savages, and the submission of most of the tribes in that vicinity. Tecumseh was not in this action, being then engaged on a mission to the south for the purpose of uniting all the Indians of that region with those at the north, in a confederacy against the United States.

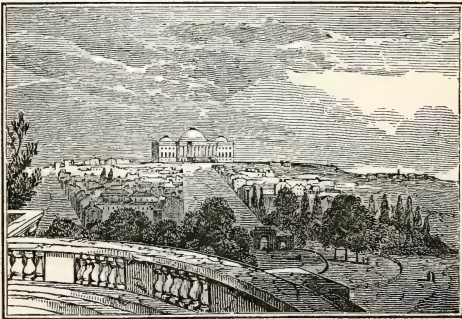


GENERAL HARRISON.

In the early part of 1812 the President received information that an individual named John Henry had been employed in 1809 by Sir James Craig, Governor-General of Canada, on a secret agency to the United States, having for its object the discovery and fomenting among the two great political parties of the country such a spirit of dissatisfaction and hatred as would eventually lead to the dissolution of the Union. This nefarious mission appears to have been confined to the New England states, they being the richest and most influential part of the country, as well as the most opposed to any declaration of war with Britain. This information was communicated to the President by Henry himself, through the Secretary of State, and transmitted to Congress in March. It excited throughout the country a strong feeling of indignation, and confirmed the popular opinion as to the difficulty of effecting a cordial reconciliation with Britain.

On the 20th of May, the *Hornet* sloop-of-war returned from Europe with intelligence that neither England nor France manifested any disposition to change their policy towards the United States. At this news the President sent a message to Congress, recounting the repeated efforts of our country to effect a treaty of peace, the insulting manner in which they had been met by Great Britain, and the outrages practised upon our commerce. "We behold," adds the President, "on the side of Great Britain a state of war against the United States; and on the side of the United States, a state of peace towards Great Britain." He then submitted for their solemn consideration the

question whether this state of things should continue, or, relying upon the mighty Disposer of events, the nation should assert its natural rights by opposing force to force. After due consideration of this message, the House of Representatives, on the 4th of June, 1812, passed a bill specifying the numerous aggressive practices of Great Britain, and declaring war. It passed the Senate by a majority of six, and was ratified by the President on the 18th. By this act the President was authorized to apply the whole land and naval force of the United States to carry the same into effect, and to issue to private armed vessels of the United States letters of marque and reprisal, in such form as he should think proper, and under the national seal, against the vessels, goods, and effects of the government and people of Great Britain and Ireland. It was followed by other acts, providing for the organization of the army and navy, the defence of the sea-coast, and the issue of treasury notes.



VIEW OF WASHINGTON.



COMMODORE HULL

CHAPTER XL.

CAMPAIGN OF 1812.



THE declaration of war with Great Britain was received with different feelings, by different classes of the American community. The minority of Congress, the Legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Jersey, and several of the commercial cities, protested against it in public addresses. But unquestionably the greater portion of the people approved of the act, and considered it the only honourable course which could have been

pursued by government. It cannot, however, be denied that the nation was but ill prepared for a struggle with a power among the first in Europe, and the acknowledged mistress of the ocean. Until the year 1808, the whole military establishment had scarcely amounted to three thousand men ; in that year it was augmented to nine thousand ; and in January, 1812, Congress had directed twenty-five thousand additional troops to be raised. The President was also authorized to accept the services of any number of volunteers, not exceeding fifty thousand, and to call upon the state governors for one hundred thousand militia. But the act providing for twenty-five thousand regular troops had been passed so short a time previous to the declaration of war, that scarcely one-fourth of that number could be raised, the great mass of whom were necessarily raw and undisciplined. The militia was a species of force on which little dependence could be placed. The navy consisted of only ten frigates, ten sloops and smaller vessels, and one hundred and sixty-five gun-boats, only sixty of which were in commission.



OR the better regulation of the army, General Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was appointed to command the northern department, and General Thomas Pinckney the southern. In April, the President had made a requisition upon the local government of Ohio, for twelve hundred men, to be placed under the command of Brigadier-General Hull, Governor of Michigan Territory. With this force, and detach-

ments from other regiments, numbering altogether about twenty-five hundred men, Hull arrived at Detroit, whence he crossed into Canada, July 12, and published a pompous proclamation to the inhabitants, in which he assured them of his ability to "look down all opposition," and invited them to join his standard. But instead of advancing directly upon Malden, where the enemy had collected, he remained inactive at Sandwich until the British had taken Mackinaw, and all the neighbouring Indians came pouring down upon his troops. The general still showed no disposition for active operations, but conducted himself with so much delay and irresolution, as to lose entirely the confidence of his officers and troops.

On the 4th of August, Major Vanhorne, with two hundred men, was sent to the assistance of a company of volunteers, who, while

escorting a supply of provisions for the army, were threatened by a body of British and Indians. This officer proceeded in so incautious a manner, that he was soon drawn into an ambuscade of the enemy and defeated with considerable loss. To compensate for this failure Hull issued orders on the 7th for an immediate attack upon Malden but on the following morning, to the astonishment and indignation of both officers and men, the whole army was directed to recross the river to Detroit. On the same day, a second unsuccessful attempt to open communication with the supplies was made by a small party under Colonel Miller.



MEANWHILE, General Brock assumed command of the British forces, and after erecting batteries within point-blank shot of the American lines, summoned Hull to surrender. Receiving a refusal, he bombarded the town all that day, [August 15,] and part of the next, when he crossed the river and prepared to assault the American line. While the garrison were awaiting his attack with

coolness, after having planted their guns in an advantageous position, they were suddenly ordered to retire into the fort, where their arms were stacked, and the artillery-men forbidden to fire. Being thus crowded into a narrow compass, they were cut down so fast that Hull soon run up a white flag in token of surrender. The terms of capitulation included not only his own troops, but those of Colonels Miller and McArthur, and Captain Brush, all of whom were at that time absent on different expeditions.

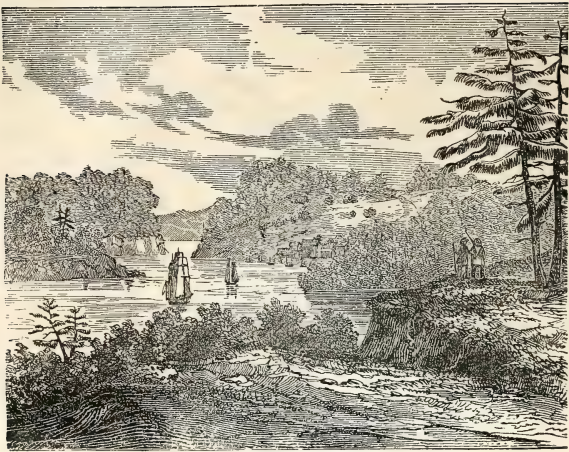
The indignation of the Americans at this cowardly and disgraceful transaction was unbounded. From the language of the general, they had been led to expect nothing less than the capture of all Upper Canada; and now the blasting of these prospects by the surrender of an American army, together with a large extent of territory, was almost too much for endurance. After his exchange, Hull was tried by court-martial, found guilty of cowardice and unofficer-like conduct, and sentenced to be shot. In consequence of his age and former services, the sentence of death was remitted, but his name was stricken from the rolls of the army.

The officers of General Hull had suspected his incapacity to command, long before he gave the final proof of it. This had induced



DEFENCE OF FORT HARRISON.

them to ask privately of the governors of Ohio and Kentucky for reinforcements, and accordingly twelve hundred militia under Brigadier-General Tupper, and two thousand volunteers under Brigadier-General Payne, were sent toward Detroit. On the road, they heard of the surrender, and on petitioning that some competent officer, well acquainted with the country, might be appointed to conduct them, that post was given to General Harrison, then Governor of Indiana. Such was the popularity of this able officer, that, although not a citizen of Kentucky, he was immediately invested by the governor of that state with the chief command of its militia, and the rank of major-general. He was also appointed brigadier-general in the regular army. On the 3d of September, with two thousand two hundred men, he arrived at Piqua, on the Great Miami, whence he despatched Colonel Allen, with five hundred men, to the relief of Fort Wayne, then invested by the Indians. At the colonel's approach, the besiegers fired a little village adjacent to the fort, and then retreated. General Tupper was then sent with one thousand men, to disperse the enemy at the Rapids of the Miami; but partly through a misunderstanding with General Winchester, Commander at Fort Wayne, and partly from defection of the Ohio militia, this expedition failed. On the western frontier, however, the small garrison of Fort Harrison, under Capt'n Zachary Taylor, defended



QUEENSTOWN.

themselves against fearful odds, during a night attack by the Indians, and although a block-house containing all their provisions was burnt to the ground, they drove off the assailants with considerable loss. The captain lost two men killed, three wounded. This success was followed by incursions into the Indian territory, during which Colonel Campbell destroyed many villages and captured a number of warriors, with their wives and children.

Meanwhile, a considerable American force under Brigadier-General Bloomfield, was stationed at Plattsburg, and another under Brigadier-General Smyth, at Buffalo. About three thousand five hundred militia, with small parties of regulars, were stationed on the Niagara frontier, under General Van Rensselaer. The latter resolved on an attempt upon Queenstown, a small place on the Niagara river, eight miles below the falls. The assaulting party was divided into a force of three hundred regulars, under Lieutenant-Colonel Christie, and the same number of militia under Colonel Van Rensselaer. These were to be followed by the flying artillery, under Colonel Fenwick, the remainder of the regulars under Major Mullany, and the artillery of Colonel Winfield Scott, who had lately arrived from Black Rock.

Before daylight on the 13th of October, the army was put in

motion at Lewistown, preparatory to crossing the river. The embarkation was made in the front of the British batteries on the bank, and at Fort George. The fort was carried with the bayonet by Captains Ogilvie and Wool. Colonel Van Rensselaer, although severely wounded, succeeded in reinforcing Colonel Christie and Captain Wool, and the British were driven back with the loss of their commander, General Brock. The American general now considered the victory gained, and crossed to Lewistown to fortify his camp; but the British, being reinforced by several hundred Indians, renewed the attack with great spirit. At this critical moment, the American militia refused to cross the river. The small body of regulars under Colonel Scott, being thus cut off from aid, maintained their post with heroic firmness until completely surrounded, when they surrendered. Soon after this battle, Van Rensselaer was succeeded by General Smyth, who, after making several unsuccessful attempts to enter Canada, retired into winter quarters.

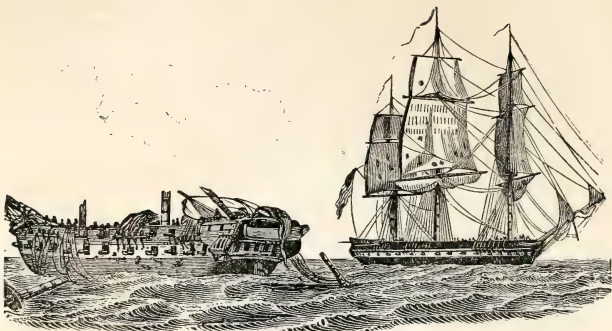
Thus the success of the land operations of this first campaign rested altogether with the English; on sea, however, where they had so long arrogated to themselves the title of masters, their superiority was nobly disputed. The accumulated wrongs heaped upon our seamen by impressment and the "right" of search, caused them to receive with ecstasy news of the declaration of war; and they sprung forward at once to pour out upon their haughty oppressor the vials of wrathful justice which had been gathering for years.



COMMODORE PORTER.

On the 3^d of July, Captain David Porter, in the new frigate *Essex*, of thirty-two guns, sailed from Sandy Hook on a cruise to the south. On the 13th of August, he was attacked by the British sloop-of-war *Alert*, which, after a battle of eight minutes, was completely silenced, and soon after sent into New York with the prisoners. This was the first ship-of-war taken during the campaign.

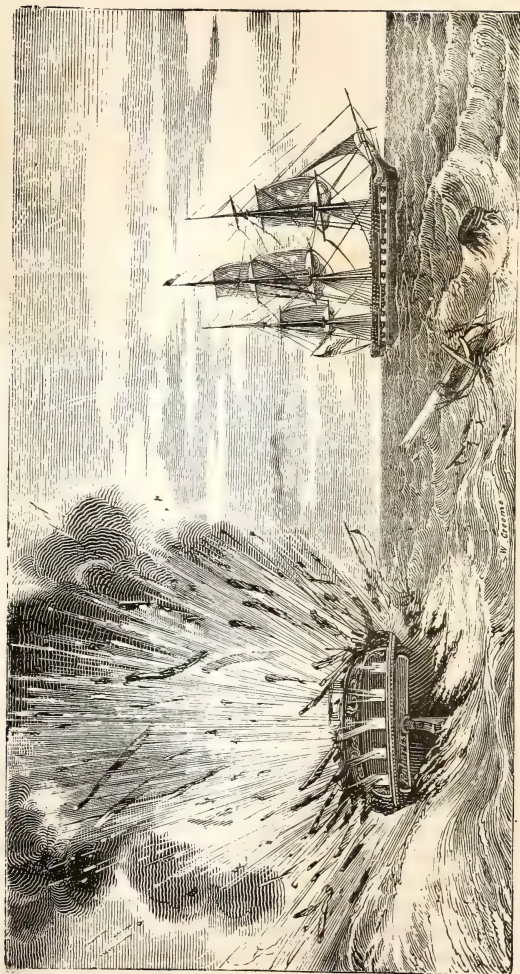
About this time, Captain Isaac Hull, in the *Constitution* of forty-four guns, made his celebrated escape from a British squadron of a line of battle ship, four frigates, a brig and a schooner, after



CAPTURE OF THE GUERRIERE

a chase of sixty hours. On the 19th of August he fell in with the frigate *Guerriere*, of forty-nine guns and three hundred men, under Captain Dacres. After considerable manœuvring, during which the enemy endeavoured to keep at long range, she ran down upon the *Constitution*, discharging several broadsides, which Hull received without returning a shot, until five minutes before six o'clock, when he commenced a heavy and well-directed fire. One broadside after another was fired with such quick and fatal execution, that in sixteen minutes one of the *Guerriere*'s masts was shot away, and her hull, rigging, and sails, were cut to pieces. In half an hour she surrendered, every spar being down except the bowsprit, and the hull so shattered that it was found necessary to blow her up. The *Constitution* lost seven killed and seven wounded; the *Guerriere*, fifteen killed, sixty-two wounded, and twenty-four missing.

On the 13th of October, the sloop-of-war *Wasp*, of eighteen guns, under Captain Jacob Jones, sailed from the Delaware, and on the 18th fell in with a convoy of six merchantmen, escorted by the sloop-of-war *Frolic*, of twenty-two guns, Captain Whinyates. At half-past eleven A. M., the action commenced at the distance of fifty yards, and after a heavy fire of forty-three minutes, during which both vessels suffered severely, the *Frolic* was carried by boarding. She was in a shocking condition, her deck, berths, and cabin being filled with dead and wounded. Every exertion was made for the comfort of the sufferers by the *Wasp*'s crew; but in the midst of their praiseworthy efforts, the British ship *Poictiers*, seventy-four guns,



CONSTITUTION AND GUERRIERE.





CAPTURE OF THE FROLIC

suddenly hove in sight, captured the *Wasp* and her prize, and carried them into Bermuda.

This affair was followed by the brilliant victory of Commodore Decatur, in the *United States*, forty-four guns, over the *Macedonian* of forty-nine. After an engagement of an hour and a half, the enemy surrendered, having thirty-six killed, and sixty-eight wounded, while one of his masts, with most of the spars and rigging, were entirely shot away. The *Macedonian* was commanded by Captain Carden, one of the ablest officers in the British navy, who had three hundred men and a superior equipment. The gallant Decatur conveyed his prize to New York, where he was received with a degree of rejoicing and gratitude similar to that which had already been bestowed upon Captain Hull. His loss had been four killed and seven wounded, and the *United States* suffered but little damage.

Captain Hull having resigned command of the *Constitution*, was succeeded by Commodore Bainbridge, who soon after sailed from Boston on a cruise to the West Indies, in company with the Sloop *Hornet*, Captain Lawrence. While Lawrence blockaded the *Bonne Citoyenne*, in the port of St. Salvador, Bainbridge, on the 29th of December, fell in with the *Java*, a British frigate of forty-nine guns.



CAPTAIN LAWRENCE.

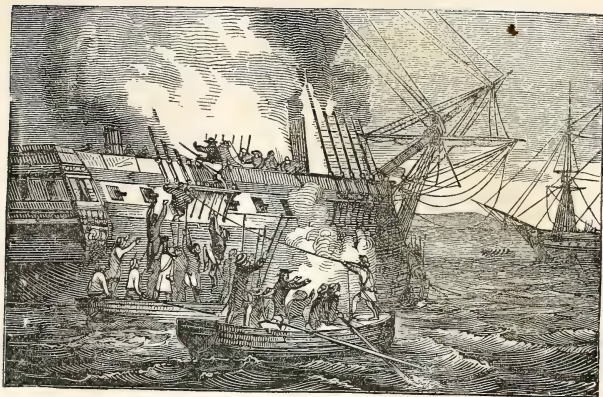
and four hundred men, under Captain Lambert. The action commenced about two o'clock P. M., and lasted two hours, during which the Java was reduced to a complete wreck, not having a single spar left. She was subsequently blown up, and the Constitution put into St Salvador. The British loss was sixty killed, and more than one hundred wounded; that of the Americans was thirty-four, of whom nine were killed.

Meanwhile, a squadron of British frigates captured the American schooner Nautilus, of twelve guns, after a long chase; and on the 22d of November, the gun-brig Vixen was taken by the frigate Southampton, and carried into the West Indies.

Before the close of this year, the havoc made upon the enemy's commerce had exceeded all previous calculation. When Congress met in November, nearly two hundred and fifty vessels had been captured by the American cruisers, together with more than three thousand prisoners. American privateers swarmed in every sea, and the enterprise so conspicuous in the character of the nation rendered them most formidable opponents. Built with a view to expeditious sailing, they were generally able to overtake merchant vessels, and to escape from the fastest frigates of the enemy. These advantages were never sullied by inhumanity, and the generosity with which in many instances the crews acted, in opposition to the love of profit, reflects credit on the national character.

Two gallant actions performed on the lakes, during the fall, deserve notice in this place. One was the cutting out of two British vessels—the Caledonia and Detroit—from the guns of Fort Erie, by Lieutenant Elliot and fifty men in small boats, October 9. One of the vessels was burnt, and the other, with a rich cargo, brought safely to Black Rock. The other was the driving of the Royal George into the port of Kingston, thus giving the Americans, for the time, complete command of the lake.

Congress met November 2. In his message, the President recounted the military and naval events of the year, and announced

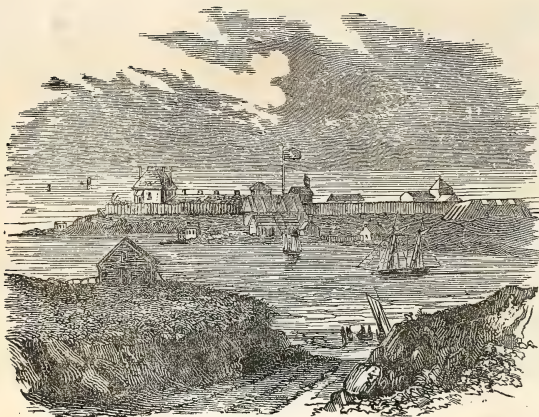


CAPTURE OF THE CALEDONIA AND DETROIT.

that Great Britain had offered an armistice, grounded on the repeal of the orders in council ; but that as no disposition was manifested to abandon the practice of impressment, he had rejected it. Congress approved his conduct, at the same time authorizing him to raise twenty additional regiments of infantry, and ten companies of rangers. A bill was also passed authorizing the construction of four seventy-four gun ships, six frigates of forty-four guns, and six sloops-of-war. Appropriations of money were also made for defraying the expenses of the war

At the presidential election this year, James Madison was re-elected, while Elbridge Gerry succeeded Mr. Clinton as Vice-President.





FORT NIAGARA.

CHAPTER XLI.

CAMPAIGN OF 1813.



THE duty of defending the north-western territory against the victorious British and Indians, and of recovering the ground lost by Hull's surrender, was, as we have seen, committed to General Harrison. It was one of the most arduous nature, requiring abilities of the highest order to give it even a prospect of success. The sufferings endured by the troops in this vast wilderness were of the most painful nature. Many of the militia were without a covering for their feet, and numbers of regulars perished for want of clothing.

General Harrison's plan for the campaign of 1813 was to occupy the rapids of the Miami, and, after collecting provisions, to move by



MASSACRE AT THE RIVER RAISIN

a select detachment upon Malden. On the 8th of January he proceeded to Upper Sandusky, where his force was augmented to about fifteen hundred men. He had already despatched orders to General Winchester at Fort Defiance to advance to the Rapids as soon as he had accumulated provisions for twenty days. That officer was to build huts there, in order to deceive the enemy by a belief that he was going into winter quarters. Winchester arrived there on the 10th of January, and on the 17th despatched Colonels Lewis and Allen with six hundred men to the river Raisin. On the road Colonel Lewis attacked a body of British and Indians at Frenchtown, defeated them, and took possession of the place. General Winchester reached it on the 20th with about two hundred and fifty men, and encamped in an open lot, Colonel Lewis's troops being protected by pickets. About daylight on the 22d they were surprised by a party of British and Indians, and the detachment of General Winchester was thrown into complete confusion and driven across the river. All attempts to rally were unsuccessful, although made in several places by General Winchester, and Colonels Lewis and Allen. Being crowded into a small lane, they were shot down on both sides



SIEGE OF FORT MEIGS.

by the Indians, until the whole body was nearly annihilated. The troops under Colonel Lewis bravely maintained their post, and repulsed all efforts of the enemy until General Winchester capitulated for them. The scene following this defeat was one of butchery never witnessed but among savages and their employers. When General Winchester surrendered, Proctor, the British commander, promised that the prisoners should be saved from the fury of the Indians. At noon he marched with the captured men to Malden, leaving a few soldiers with the wounded Americans at Frenchtown. At sunrise on the following day, the Indians, who had accompanied him, returned to the village, and fired the houses containing the disabled prisoners, thrusting back all those who endeavoured to escape. Others met their death in the streets; and a number, after being tomahawked, were dragged out into the highway. This horrible affair of the massacre at the river Raisin has fixed an indelible stain upon the name of Proctor.

In consequence of this disaster, General Harrison abandoned his designs upon Malden, and commenced the fortification of his camp, which he called Fort Meigs. Here he was attacked in the latter part of April, by General Proctor, with his victorious army of British and

Indians. On the 1st of May the enemy opened a heavy fire from their batteries, which was continued until late at night, but without producing much effect on the well-constructed works of the garrison. Thus disappointed, Proctor transferred his guns to the opposite side of the river, and opened a fire upon the centre and flanks of the camp. The cannonading continued several days; that of the Americans producing much execution, although from a scarcity of ammunition they were compelled to economize their fire. An attempt by General Clay to raise the siege was defeated by the insubordination of his troops. Many valuable lives were lost, and atrocities were committed upon such of the Americans as were captured by the Indians. At length, on the 9th of May, Proctor, finding that he could make no impression upon the fort with his batteries, and that his allies, disappointed in their hopes of scalps and plunder, were deserting him in numbers, embarked and sailed down the river. Their force is supposed to have been upwards of one thousand men, with as many Indians—the latter under the celebrated Tecumseh. The American garrison seldom exceeded twelve hundred men, only a small portion of whom were regulars. The loss during the siege, except that caused by the unfortunate attempt of General Clay, was not great.

On the 25th of April, General Dearborn, with seventeen hundred men, left Sackett's Harbour, for an attack on York, the capital of Upper Canada. On the 27th the army effected a landing, though opposed by eight hundred British and Indians. Major Forsyth, with his riflemen, first gained the shore, followed by General Pike, who formed his troops on the water-edge, and then pressed on in regular column. After carrying one of the batteries they were advancing upon the main works, when an explosion of one of the enemy's magazines hurled amid their ranks masses of stone and timber, one of which killed General Pike. Colonel Pierce assumed command; and, notwithstanding the momentary pause occasioned by this untoward accident, he pushed forward and carried the British works. At five o'clock the Americans took possession of the town. The land and naval forces were surrendered prisoners of war, and all public stores given up. Two hundred and ninety-one officers and privates were taken prisoners, and four hundred killed or wounded. The Americans lost three hundred and twenty men, of whom two hundred and sixty were killed by the magazine explosion.

General Dearborn next made a descent upon Fort George, which was taken after a spirited resistance. The garrison having received



DEATH OF GENERAL PIKE.

reinforcements and retired to Burlington Heights, Generals Chandler and Winder were detached to cut off its retreat. These generals were surprised at night, captured, and their forces driven back to Fort George. A similar result attended an expedition to Beaver Dams,—the party under Lieutenant-Colonel Boerstler being surrounded, and compelled to lay down their arms at the head of the British column.

At the departure of General Dearborn for York, he had intrusted the command of Sackett's Harbour to Brigadier-General Brown, of the New York militia, whose collected force amounted to about five hundred militia, with an equal number of regulars, seamen, and volunteers. The militia and volunteers, under Colonel Mills, formed his first line, being posted behind a hastily constructed breastwork; the regulars, under Colonel Backus, composed the second line; while some seamen, under Lieutenant Chauncey, were stationed at the navy-yard. These arrangements were scarcely completed, when, on the 29th of May, Sir George Prevost landed with one thousand picked men and, after defeating the militia, with the loss of their colonel, advanced against the village. About one hundred militia, under General Brown, uniting with the regulars under Colonel Backus, severely annoyed the enemy; and, when forced to retire, they took possession of some neighbouring houses, and poured upon



SACKETT'S HARBOUR.

the assailants so well-directed a fire that they were driven back. Their rout was completed by a stratagem of General Brown, by which he induced them to re-embark so rapidly as to leave behind most of their wounded and prisoners. Their loss was twenty-four killed, twenty-two wounded, and thirty-three taken prisoners; that of the Americans one hundred and fifty-six in killed, wounded, and missing. Shortly after this important victory, General Brown was appointed brigadier-general in the regular army.



On the 20th of July the British and Indians made another attack upon Fort Meigs, where they were again defeated after a siege of eight days. General Proctor, with five hundred regulars and eight hundred Indians then determined upon an attack on Fort Stephenson, garrisoned by one hundred and fifty men under Major Croghan. The British landed on the first of August, and opened a heavy fire from some six-pounders and a howitzer. The Americans had but one piece of artillery, which was moved from place to place, so as to make the enemy believe there were several. The firing continued all next day until late in the evening, when, after skilful manœuvring, the British marched to the attack in two columns, led by Colonels Short and Warburton. The first, numbering three hundred and fifty men, had



DEFENCE OF FORT STEPHENSON.

arrived as far as the ditch, when the piece of artillery opened upon them with fearful effect, killing their colonel, with numbers of his men, and driving the remainder into the woods. A similar fate attended the other column. Proctor immediately withdrew his forces, leaving behind, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about one hundred and fifty men. To the wretched sufferers in the ditch the brave garrison extended all the aid in their power, carrying them water and other necessaries at the risk of their own safety, and even making an opening in the picketing, so that they could crawl in. For this brilliant defence, which was one of the most glorious achievements of the war, Croghan and his men received the thanks of Congress.

Meanwhile the earnest representations of General Harrison had awakened government to the necessity of obtaining a naval superiority on Lake Erie, so that two brigs and several schooners were ordered to be built at the port of Erie, under the directions of Commodore O. H. Perry. On the 2d of August this officer was enabled to sail in quest of the enemy, whom he encountered on the 10th of September. The American fleet consisted of nine small vessels, carrying fifty-four guns; the British of six vessels, carrying sixty-three guns. The battle commenced about noon, between Perry's flag-ship, the *Lawrence*, of twenty guns, and the whole British fleet. After a

close contest of two hours, during which the remaining American vessels were unable to come up, the *Lawrence* was silenced, and every thing seemed to promise the British a speedy victory ; but, at



COMMODORE PERRY.

this crisis, Perry crossed to the second ship, *Niagara*, in an open boat, renewed the action with the greatest vigour, and soon compelled the opposing fleet to strike its colours.

This victory was bought with the loss of two officers, and twenty-five men killed, and ninety-six wounded ; the British had forty-one killed, and ninety-four wounded. Not only did the event occasion the greatest joy throughout the country, as being the first victory gained over a British fleet, but also, inasmuch as it gave the American army under General Harrison an opportunity to cross into Canada, and retrieve the losses of the former campaign.

On receiving information of the loss of his fleet, Proctor immediately abandoned Malden, which was taken possession of by Harrison and Governor Shelby. On the 2d of October the Americans moved forward in pursuit of the British, whom they overtook on the 5th, drawn up in line of battle, on a narrow isthmus covered with trees. The regulars, under Proctor, were covered by the river, and Tecumseh's Indians by a morass. Colonel Johnson, with the mounted volunteers, was ordered to charge the Indians, while the main army, under Harrison, charged the British. So impetuous was the onset, that both the enemy's lines were immediately broken, and to the number of eight hundred men they threw down their arms and surrendered. Proctor effected his escape. Notwithstanding this loss, the Indians continued to fight with desperate valour, until their great chief Tecumseh was killed, when they fled in all directions.

In this decisive action the victors had only seven killed, and twenty-two wounded. The British and Indians lost nearly one hundred in killed and wounded, together with large quantities of arms and military stores. Harrison now left part of his troops at Detroit under General Cass, and sailed with the remainder to Buffalo.



BATTLE OF THE THAMES.



ARLY in the spring of this year, a British order in council declared the American coast, from the Chesapeake to Rhode Island, in a state of blockade. In March, Commodore Beresford made a demand for provisions on the inhabitants of Lewistown, with an offer of payment. Being refused, he opened a bombardment on the 6th of April, which, after continuing for twenty-two hours with no effect upon the Americans, he abandoned, and sailed for Bermuda. About the same time a squadron of four ships of the line and six frigates, under Admiral Cockburn, arrived in the Chesapeake. This officer signalized himself by pillaging country seats, farm-houses, and small vessels, plundering public and private property, and firing the villages of Frenchtown, Havre de Grace, Frederickton, and Georgetown. The British were then reinforced by large bodies of troops under Sir John Warren and Sir Sidney Beckwith. These officers made a combined attack upon Norfolk, but were gallantly repulsed by the seamen and militia in that vicinity. They then proceeded against Hampton, eighteen miles from Norfolk, which they carried after an obstinate resistance. The town was given up to the soldiery, who perpetrated outrages upon

person and property too revolting to be described. Not long after Admiral Cockburn, with a considerable fleet, perpetrated similar devastations along the coast of North Carolina.

While these events were transpiring in the north and along the coast, serious disturbances had taken place among the southern Indians. These warriors had been excited by a visit from Tecumseh, who had used all his eloquence and influence to bring them into the confederation he was at that time forming against the United States. In September, 1812, the Creeks defeated a body of Georgia volunteers, but were soon afterwards overawed by the appearance of General Jackson in their territory, with twenty-five hundred volunteers.

On the 30th of August, Fort Mimms, with its garrison of about three hundred planters and settlers, was attacked by six hundred Indians under the chief Weatherford. After a close conflict, the assailants cut their way into the works, drove the besieged into houses, and set them on fire. Out of three hundred men, women, and children, only seventeen escaped. To revenge this massacre, General Jackson was sent against the savages with an army of thirty-five hundred militia. On the 2d of November he sent General Coffee with nine hundred men against a body of Indians posted at Tallushatchee. The attack was made early on the following morning, and after a sanguinary conflict terminated in the annihilation of the enemy. A number of women and children were taken prisoners. General Coffee lost five killed, and forty wounded.

On the 7th of November Jackson marched with two thousand men to relieve some friendly Indians at Talladega, which was then threatened by the enemy. The enemy were attacked on the 9th; and, after a close struggle, compelled to fly, leaving behind them more than three hundred dead warriors. The Americans lost fifteen killed, and eighty wounded. A short time subsequent to this, General White destroyed the principal town of the Hillabee tribe, killing sixty of their warriors, and capturing two hundred and fifty prisoners. Another victory was obtained over the Indians at Autossee, by a force under General Floyd. After a contest of two hours' duration, two hundred of their warriors were killed, while the Americans lost eleven killed, and fifty-four wounded.

On the 22d of January, 1814, General Jackson, with a large force, fought a decisive battle at Emuckfaw Creek, near a bend of the Tallapoosa. The Indians attacked at daylight; and, after a warm action of half an hour, were driven back; but, returning in a little



BATTLE OF EMOUCKPAW.

while, they made a furious assault on the left, which, with great difficulty, was sustained. General Coffee charged their flank, when they were driven into a marsh. Being enticed from this, they were once more defeated, and their warriors cut to pieces. The conflict on the American right terminated in a similar manner.

On the 14th of March, General Jackson, with about three thousand men, commenced another expedition against the Creeks. The first point of attack was the fortress of Tohopeka, defended by about one thousand warriors. The assault was conducted by General Coffee on one side, and General Jackson on the other, assisted by cannon and musketry. When these two forces arrived at the breastworks, a contest ensued, which, for obstinacy and bloodshed, has been rarely surpassed in Indian warfare. No quarter was asked or received by either party. When, towards evening, the action closed, a wretched, heart-broken remnant, was all that remained of the Creek warriors. Only four men had been taken prisoners, together with three hundred women and children. Five hundred and fifty-seven warriors were found dead upon the ground, besides a great number who perished in attempting to cross the river. Fifty-five Americans were killed, and one hundred and forty-six wounded. Immediately after his action the American general marched to the Hickory ground,



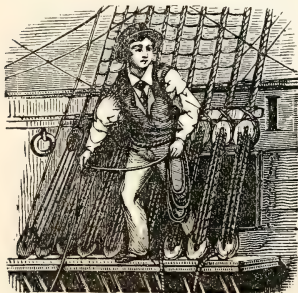
BATTLE OF TOHOPEKA.

where he concluded treaties of peace with most of the Indian tribes in that vicinity.



HE naval events of this year were not less glorious than those of 1812. On the 23d of February, the *Hornet* sloop-of-war, Captain Lawrence, fell in with the brig *Peacock*, of twenty guns, Captain Peake; and, after an action of thirty minutes, reduced her to a complete wreck. The Americans lost one killed, and three wounded. The *Peacock* sunk before all her crew could be removed, carrying with her three Americans and nine British. For his gal-

lantry in this action, Lawrence was promoted to the command of the Chesapeake. He found several of the officers sick, many of the crew newly enlisted, and the remainder dissatisfied at the withholding of their prize-money. Being unfortunately too unmindful of these incidents, Lawrence sailed on the first of June from Boston, in quest of the British frigate Shannon. Unknown to Lawrence, this vessel had recently been fitted out with a picked crew and superior equipment, and had sent a challenge for the Chesapeake one day after the sailing of the latter, but which, unfortunately, Lawrence did not receive. The action commenced at half-past five; and in a very short time the fire from the Shannon proved so destructive that the Chesapeake's sailing-master, and four lieutenants, were killed or wounded, and her rigging was so much injured that she fell aboard the enemy. Captain Lawrence was also wounded, but remained on deck giving his orders with perfect composure. Soon after, the British commander, Captain Broke, boarded with his marines, when Lawrence, receiving a third and mortal wound, was carried below, while issuing his noble order, "Don't give up the ship." The handful on deck were soon overpowered; and, for the first time during the war, the British flag was placed over an American frigate. In this desperate and sanguinary battle Captain Broke was wounded, his first lieutenant killed, and seventy-nine others killed or wounded. The Chesapeake lost seventy-seven killed, and about ninety-seven wounded. The death of the gallant Lawrence spread a feeling of deep sorrow throughout the country.



ON August, Captain Allen, in the brig Argus, after a very successful cruise, was met by the British war-sloop Pelican, of rather superior force. A battle ensued, [August 14,] which, after lasting an hour and a half, terminated in the capture of the American vessel,—her captain, first lieutenant, and many of the seamen, being severely wounded, most of her rigging shot away, and the British frigate Sea-Horse heaving in sight. Subsequently Captain Allen died of his wounds, and was buried in England. The mortification caused by this event was, in some measure,

disipated by the capture of the British brig Boxer, [September 4,] of fourteen guns, by Lieutenant Burrows, in the brig Enterprise, of fourteen guns.

This year, like the former, was noted for the enterprise and success of the American privateers against the enemy's commercial vessels. Victories were sometimes gained even over English armed



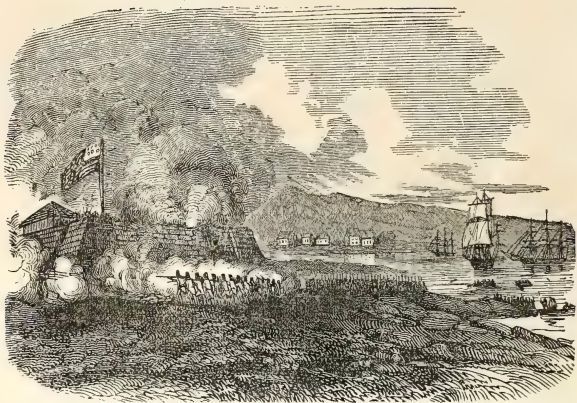
CAPTAIN ALLEN.

ships. Few naval actions were ever more desperate and gallant than that fought by the Privateer, Decatur, of seven guns and one hundred and three men, with the schooner Dominica, of fifteen guns and eighty-eight men, in which the latter, after a two hours' action, was carried by boarding.

During this year the Emperor of Russia offered his services to mediate between England and the United States, as the common friend of both countries. This was accepted by President Madison, who named John Q. Adams, Albert Gallatin, and James A. Bayard, as commissioners. But Great Britain declined to treat under the mediation of Russia, proposing a direct negotiation at London or Gottenburg. This the President accepted, and added Henry Clay and Jonathan Russell to the commissioners already appointed.

During the session of Congress, a loan of twenty-five million dollars, and the issue of treasury notes for five millions, were authorized, and provisions made for the increase of the army and the better defence of the sea-coast.





DEFENCE OF FORT OSWEGO

CHAPTER XLII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1814.



THE opening of this campaign on the north-eastern frontier was not calculated to dispel the gloomy feelings with which the Americans had been oppressed by the result of former operations in that quarter. The termination of the war in Spain had enabled the British to send over large detachments of "Wellington's veterans,"

flushed with victory and eager to add, to their already brilliant fame, the renown of performing a triumphant campaign in America.

Late in March, General Wilkinson sent one division of his army under General Brown, to Sackett's Harbour, and then marched against the enemy at La Cole Mill. After cannonading this place without making the least impression, he returned to Plattsburg, having lost, in killed and wounded, one hundred men. The British acknowledge a loss of sixty. He was soon afterwards superseded by General Izard. This was followed by a descent of the enemy



BATTLE OF CHIPPEWA.

upon Oswego, which was yielded only after a most gallant defence by Colonel Mitchell, who succeeded in saving most of his stores. Subsequently, two hundred of the assailants were captured while endeavouring to get possession of these stores.

At midnight of July 2, General Brown made a descent upon Fort Erie, which surrendered next morning without resistance. One hundred and thirty prisoners were taken. General Brown then advanced against three thousand British under General Riall, at Chippewa, whom, after a severe action, (July 5,) he defeated, with the loss of four hundred and fifty-three killed and wounded, and forty-six taken. The total loss of the Americans was three hundred and twenty-eight. Soon after, the British were reinforced by troops under General Drummond, who moved against the town of Schlosser to capture the American stores. To prevent this, General Scott was sent on the Queenstown road with his own brigade, Towson's artillery, and the dragoons, and at five in the afternoon, July 25, came up with the enemy strongly posted at Bridgewater. Notwithstanding the inferiority of force, Scott determined on an attack; and sending to General Brown for a reinforcement, he ordered Captain Towson to open with his artillery. A desperate action ensued, during which two American regiments, having expended their fire, were forced back, while at the same time General Riall and many other officers



GENERAL RIPLEY

were captured in another quarter. The enemy's batteries of nine pieces still pouring in a terrible fire, General Scott was on the point of falling back, when General Ripley arrived with reinforcements. Both armies were now fighting by moonlight, and Ripley, seeing the execution caused by the enemy's cannon, ordered Colonel Miller to advance and capture them. This he did, with a degree of gallantry which shed the brightest glory on himself and his intrepid regiment. About the same time, Ripley drove the enemy's infantry from the crest of the hill. The British made three determined efforts to recover their batteries, but being repulsed in every direction, they withdrew from the field about midnight. In this obstinate battle, Generals Brown and Scott were both seriously wounded, and eight hundred and sixty killed, wounded, or missing. The British loss was eight hundred and seventy-eight, including, among their wounded, Generals Drummond and Riall. From its vicinity to the falls, this is called the battle of Niagara.

The command of the American army now devolved upon General Ripley, who, breaking up his camp at Chippewa, retired with sixteen hundred men to Fort Erie, which he proceeded to strengthen. Drummond invested the place on the 4th of August, and on the next day General Gaines arrived and took command of the garrison.



GENERAL MILLER.

The siege and cannonade continued until the 15th, when, at two o'clock in the morning, the British made a furious assault upon the works, but were repulsed with the loss of more than nine hundred. The garrison lost eighty-four. On the 2d of September, General Brown arrived, and at noon of the 17th, in company with Generals Porter and Miller, made a sortie from the fort, capturing the enemy's whole line of intrenchments, together with three hundred and eighty prisoners, and destroying in half an hour the fruits of forty-seven days' labour. His total loss was five hundred and twenty-seven; that of the British five hundred, exclusive of prisoners. On the night of the 21st, the enemy raised the siege. On the 9th of October, General Izard arrived, assumed command, destroyed Fort Erie, and retired into winter quarters.

Meanwhile, another British force had attempted a dismemberment of the Union. This was to be done by obtaining a naval superiority on Lake Champlain, moving down the Hudson and attacking New York, thus cutting off the eastern states from the others—it being supposed that they were willing to make a separate peace. Accordingly, a large army of "Wellington's veterans" marched toward Plattsburg on the river Saranac, near its juncture with Lake Champlain. After skirmishing with the militia, they entered the town on the 6th of



GENERAL MACOMB.

September, the Americans under General Macomb having retired to the opposite side of the river, and torn up the bridges. They num-



COMMODORE M'DONOUGH.

bered but fifteen hundred, yet with this force the general kept the enemy in check, who, finding his efforts to cross unavailing, erected batteries to annoy the American camp.

On the morning of the 11th, the British fleet of seventeen vessels, carrying ninety-five guns, engaged the American fleet of fourteen sail, and eighty-six guns, under Commodore McDonough.

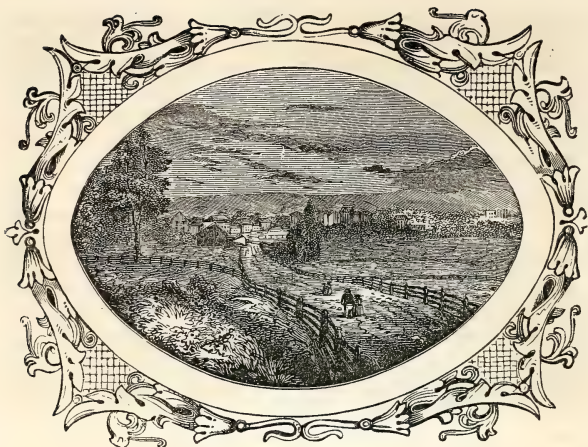
After an action of more than two hours, the British flag-ship struck her colours, a brig and two



BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

sloops were taken, and three galleys sunk: Captain Downie, the commander, was killed, with eighty-three of his men; one hundred and ten were wounded, and eight hundred and fifty-six—more than the whole American force—taken. The victors lost one hundred and ten. This glorious victory put an end to a furious cannonade of the enemy's land forces, which had continued all day; while at the same time the shores rang with the shouts of the joyful Americans. That night the "veterans," numbering about fourteen thousand, fled with such haste to Chazy, eight miles distant, that their flight was not discovered until the next morning. The American land forces numbered about forty-five hundred, of whom three thousand were militia. The American loss was only ninety-nine.

Early in the spring of this year, the British government had declared the whole coast of the United States under blockade, and portions of their naval force attacked with greater or less success the towns of Eastport, Stonington, Castine, and others. Early in August, Admirals Cochrane and Malcolm entered the Chesapeake with a large fleet and army, part of which were ordered up the Potomac, part higher up the Chesapeake, while the main body under General Ross landed at Benedict, on the Patuxent, August 19. The American force of three thousand men, mostly militia, under General



BLADENSBURG.

Winder, retired before him, until at Bladensburg it was reinforced by twenty-one hundred men under General Stansbury. Commodore Barney with his sailors also joined him, having destroyed his flotilla. A battle took place at Bladensburg, in which, although the militia fled as soon as the enemy were in sight, Barney and Colonel Miller, with the marines, nobly sustained the charge, and but for their small number would have driven back the assailants' whole army. At length this little band were attacked in front and on both flanks, by three times their own number, and both their leaders being severely wounded, they were driven off the field. Barney and Miller were both taken, but, on account of their gallant conduct, received the greatest care and praise from the British.

This victory left the American capital at the mercy of the victors, who arrived there under General Ross, at eight o'clock in the evening. He offered to retire on condition of receiving a sum of money equal to the value of the public and private property. There being no authority near competent to enter into such an arrangement, he set fire to all the public buildings except the post-office, thus destroying all the collections of art at the capitol, together with the valuable national and public records. After this proceeding, which

disgraced the British character, he re-embarked on the 30th, having lost nine hundred men in killed, wounded, and taken. The Americans had one hundred and twenty captured, and ninety killed or wounded.

Meanwhile, the squadron under Captain Gordon, which had entered the Potomac, reached Alexandria on the 29th, and forced the inhabitants to deliver up all their vessels and merchandise. Having by this means collected a rich booty, they rejoined the main fleet with the loss of seven killed and thirty-five wounded. The remaining expedition was not so fortunate. Being opposed by Colonel Reed with a party of militia, Sir Peter Parker received a mortal wound, fourteen of his men were killed, and twenty-seven wounded. The remainder retired to their shipping.

General Ross now resolved on an attack upon Baltimore, where he expected to find a large booty. He was destined, however, to experience an unexpected and bitter reverse. The defence of the city was intrusted to General Smith, assisted by Generals Stricker and Winder, the whole American force numbering about fifteen thousand, of whom only seven hundred were regulars. Fort McHenry guarded the approach by water, besides which large vessels had been sunk in the channel, and two temporary works erected between the fort and the city. On the 12th of September, the British landed about five thousand men at North Point, about fourteen miles below Baltimore. They were opposed by General Stricker, near Bear Creek, and a skirmish ensued between the advance parties, during which General Ross was killed. Colonel Brook then assumed the command, when the battle became general—the Americans slowly retiring toward the city. On the following day the British attempted to reach their destination by a circuitous route, but failing, they suddenly retreated to their shipping.

Meanwhile Fort McHenry had been furiously assailed, the enemy's whole line of fifty ships bombarding it from sunrise on the 13th, until seven the following morning. The garrison, consisting of one thousand men under Major Armistead, gallantly did their duty, and, with the assistance of the smaller forts, poured into the opposing fleet so well-directed a fire, that on the 15th it descended the Chesapeake, and after taking on board the land forces, joined the remainder of the squadron. The British lost thirty-nine killed, two hundred and fifty-one wounded; the Americans twenty-four killed, one hundred and thirty-nine wounded, and about fifty taken.



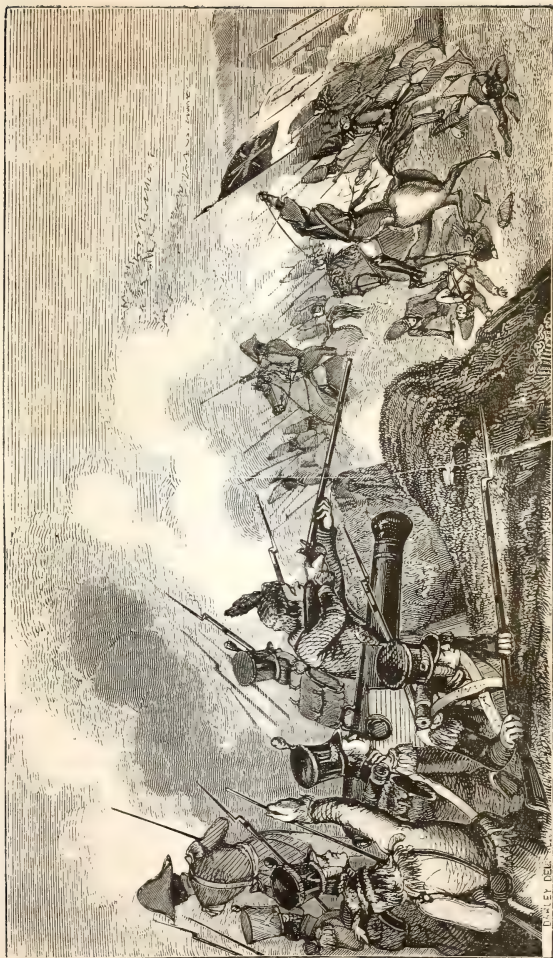
BOMBARDMENT OF FORT M'HENRY



IN the summer of this year, the south-western states again became the theatre of active operations. In August, a body of British troops arrived at Pensacola, and marched into the Spanish fort at that place. Their commander, Colonel Nicholls, issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of Louisiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee, inviting them to secede from the federal government. He also made offers of alliance and friendship

to the pirates of Barataria, under their renowned chief Lafitte; but that officer immediately made the whole known to Governor Claiborne of Louisiana, who, pleased with his magnanimity, promised pardon to the whole band, on condition of their engaging in defence of the country. This was accepted, and from that time the Baratarians did good service in the American cause.

On the 15th of September, a British squadron of two ships and two brigs appeared before Fort Bowyer, which commanded the entrance into Mobile Bay, and was occupied by a small garrison under Major Lawrence. An action commenced at four in the afternoon



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

which, after continuing about three hours, ended in the total discomfiture of the enemy's force. One of the ships was set on fire, the other forced to run aground, and a brig was greatly injured. The British loss in the three vessels was two hundred and thirty-four, that in the fourth not being ascertained. A land force of one hundred and ten marines, and two hundred Indians, was also repulsed. Four of the garrison were killed and five wounded.



THE conduct of the Governor of Pensacola, in admitting the British and Indians within the city, and allowing them to fit out expeditions against the United States from that port, was considered by General Jackson a violation of the treaty between Spain and the United States, which called for summary punishment. Accordingly, on the 7th of November, he appeared before that place with two thousand men, and entering the city, compelled the authorities to sign a capitulation,

by which Pensacola and its dependencies were delivered up to the American government.

After this act, General Jackson proceeded to New Orleans, which he reached on the 2d of December. After guarding all the approaches to that city, and providing for the defence of Lakes Borgne and Ponchartrain, he adopted measures to rid the population of the spies and traitors which he had good reason to believe were numerous. Martial law was proclaimed, an embargo was laid upon all vessels in the harbour; negroes were impressed and compelled to work on the fortifications, and the whole militia force of the district was called out and placed under arms.

The British flotilla of forty-three gun-boats, carrying twelve hundred men, attacked the American force of five boats and one hundred and eighty men, on the 14th, and, after a brisk skirmish, compelled the latter to surrender. This secured to the enemy the command of Lakes Borgne and Ponchartrain, an advantage which they were not slow in improving. Guided by some informers, they took possession of an unfrequented pass on the 23d, captured the picket

guard, and pushed forward to the bank of the river. On receiving news of this movement, Jackson resolved on an immediate attack, and, collecting about two thousand men, he marched against them at five in the afternoon. The British force numbered about three thousand, and extended along the river shore half a mile. The attack was commenced by the American schooner *Caroline*, which, lighted by the enemy's camp-fires, opened upon them a galling fire. So dark was the evening, that this was the first intimation to the British of the Americans being near. At the same time, General Coffee with his brigade assailed their right, and General Jackson their left. A fierce struggle ensued, which was ended only by the occurrence of a thick fog, when Jackson thought proper to call off his troops. His loss was twenty-four killed, one hundred and fifteen wounded, and seventy-four missing; that of the enemy forty-six killed, one hundred and sixty-two wounded, and sixty-four missing. The result of this action so inspirited the Americans that it may well be considered the cause of the final victory on the 8th of January.

On the 27th, the *Caroline* ran aground, and was speedily set on fire by the enemy. Next day the British commander, Sir Edward Pakenham, furiously assaulted the American works with bombs, rockets, and heavy artillery. Little effect was produced, as the defences were constructed of thick cotton bales, which no balls could penetrate. At the same time, the fire from the American batteries, and the vessel *Louisiana*, was so severe that the assailants were obliged to withdraw with considerable loss. A similar attempt on the night of January 1, 1815, was also frustrated. Soon after, the Americans were reinforced by twenty-five hundred Kentuckians, swelling their numbers to about seven thousand men. The British also received an addition of four thousand men under General Lambert, swelling their total force to twelve thousand.

The final assault upon the Americans was reserved for the 8th of January, and was directed against the defences on each side of the river. The main army, under the superintendence of the commander-in-chief, advanced in two columns, led by Generals Gibbs and Keane—General Lambert holding the reserve. With fascines and scaling-ladders, the troops advanced slowly, to within nine hundred yards of the works, when the American artillery opened, and mowed them down with fearful slaughter. Still pressing on, they encountered the fatal fires of the western riflemen, which soon



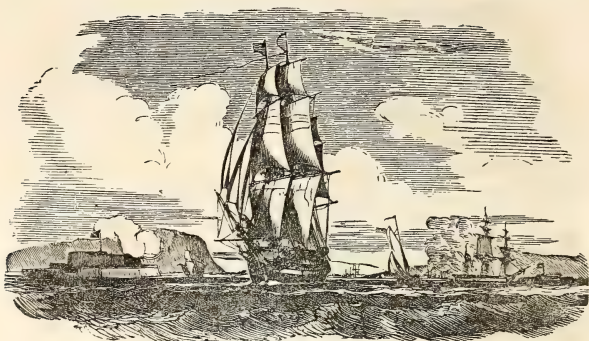
SCENE AFTER THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

roke both columns, and drove them back in confusion. In rallying them, Sir Edward Packenham was killed, and General Gibbs assumed command. The troops were again led forward, and again repulsed; and a third attempt met with like result. Gibbs and Keane were severely wounded, the whole army thrown into distressing confusion, and the plain covered with nearly two thousand dead and wounded. General Lambert then collected the shattered remains of this once formidable army, and retired to the encampment. The Americans lost but thirteen in killed and wounded.

Meanwhile, the detachment on the left bank, under Colonel Thornton, had succeeded in driving the Americans from their works; but they were soon afterwards recovered by a stratagem of General Jackson. Here the British loss was one hundred and twenty killed and wounded; the American, six killed and wounded, and nineteen missing. General Jackson's whole campaign at New Orleans was one of the most brilliant in our annals; and the battle of the 8th of January is justly regarded as the crowning glory of the war. After this signal defeat, the enemy proceeded to Mobile Bay, where they took possession of Fort Bowyer, whose garrison numbered only three hundred and seventy-five men. Soon



CRUISE OF THE ESSEX.

after, the arrival of the news of peace arrested all further proceedings.



THE maritime events of 1814 were as stirring and important as those of the preceding year. In February, Commodore Rodgers, after a cruise of seventy-five days, during which he captured many of the enemy's vessels, fell in with three vessels of war, to one of which, the *Plantagenet*, of seventy-four guns, he offered battle. This was declined, and Rodgers pursued his way to New York. Not long after, the celebrated cruise of Captain Porter was terminated by the capture of his vessel, the *Essex*. For more than a year he had maintained a supremacy along the Pacific coast, capturing or destroying twelve British vessels, and cargoes to the amount of more than two millions of dollars. The *Phœbe*, a British frigate of thirty guns, being sent against him, Porter was blockaded in the port of Valparaiso for about six weeks. In attempting to get to sea, the *Essex* was struck by a squall, and obliged to run into a small bay. Here, in violation of the laws of nations, she was attacked by the English captain with two vessels, and after a contest of three hours, obliged to strike her colours. Her loss was fifty eight killed, sixty-six wounded, and thirty-one missing; that of the

enemy five killed and ten wounded. Captain Porter and his crew were paroled and sent to the United States; but being attacked on the way by the *Saturn*, he gave up his parole, and soon after escaped to the United States.

On the 29th of April, the *Peacock* of eighteen guns, Captain Warrington, captured the brig *Epervier*, after an action of forty-two minutes. Each vessel mounted eighteen guns. The Americans had two men slightly wounded; the British lost eight killed, fifteen wounded, besides one hundred and twenty thousand dollars in specie.



CAPTAIN BLAKELY.

On the 28th of June, the sloop-of-war *Wasp*, of eighteen guns, Captain Blakely, captured the British brig *Reindeer*, of nineteen guns. The action lasted two hours, the Americans losing five killed and twenty-one wounded; the British twenty-five killed, forty-two wounded. Continuing his cruise, Blakely, on the 1st of September, captured a merchantman, and on the same evening the sloop *Avon*, of twenty

guns. This vessel soon afterwards sunk. On the 23d of September, he captured the brig *Atlanta*, which he sent to the United States. From this period no tidings were ever heard of the *Wasp* or her gallant crew.

On the 24th of December, Captain Stewart, in the *Constitution*, captured the brig *Lord Nelson*, off Bermudas. Off Lisbon, he captured the ship *Susan*, with a valuable cargo, and sent her to the United States. On the 20th of February, 1815, after an action of half an hour, he captured the frigate *Cyanne*, of thirty-four guns and one hundred and eighty men, and the sloop *Levant*, of twenty-one guns and one hundred and fifty-six men. The enemy lost, in killed and wounded, seventy-seven; the Americans three killed, twelve wounded. The *Levant* was subsequently recaptured by a British squadron.

On the 15th of January, Commodore Decatur, in the *President*, was chased by the British blockading squadron, consisting of the *Majestic* of seventy guns, and the *Endymion*, *Pomona*, and *Tenedos* of fifty guns each. At noon he had outsailed all except the *Endy*



ESCAPE OF THE HORNET.

mon, which he engaged at five in the afternoon, and after an action of two hours and a half, completely disabled her. But by this time the remainder of the fleet had arrived within gunshot, and the gallant commodore was compelled to strike his colours.

On the 23d of March, the Hornet sloop-of-war, of eighteen guns, Captain Biddle, engaged the British brig Penguin, and after an action of fifteen minutes compelled her to surrender. Forty-two of the enemy were killed or wounded; the Hornet had one man killed and eleven wounded. Immediately afterwards, Captain Biddle was chased by a British seventy-four, but succeeded in escaping by throwing his guns and other heavy articles overboard.

Meanwhile, negotiations for peace had been actively carried on at Ghent, and on the 24th of December, a treaty was signed between the ambassadors of the two nations, and ratified by the Prince Regent of England, on the 28th of the same month. Being transmitted to the American government, it was approved by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, on the 17th of February, 1815. This instrument secured to each nation all the places taken by the other during the war, with some insignificant exceptions; made provisions for regulating the boundaries of the United States and Canada, and of securing peace with the Indians. Both parties agreed to unite their best efforts for the suppression of the slave trade. A

treaty regulating the commerce between the two countries was signed at London on the 3d of July, and ratified by the President on the 22d of December.



THE termination of hostilities with Great Britain afforded the Americans an opportunity to punish the Algerines for their wanton insults upon our commerce in the Mediterranean. War was accordingly declared, and in June Decatur appeared off the Barbary coast with a considerable squadron. On the 17th, he captured the Algerine frigate *Mazonda*, kill-

ing thirty of the crew, and taking four hundred and six prisoners. His own loss was but four men wounded. Two days after, he captured an Algerine brig of twenty-two guns. Arriving in the harbour of Algiers on the 28th, he so intimidated the dey as to compel him immediately to sign a treaty, the terms of which were more lenient than had ever before been granted by that nation to a foreign power. Commodore Decatur then made a present of the captured frigate and brig to the dey. On his return he demanded and obtained satisfaction of the Bey of Tunis and Bashaw of Tripoli, for violations of their treaties in permitting British vessels to remove from their protection American privateers with their prizes. He arrived safely in the United States, November 12, 1815.

The national events of a civil nature during the period of the war were of but little historic importance. In the year following the conclusion of peace, [1816,] Indiana was admitted into the Union as a state, and the charter of the United States Bank was renewed. In the ensuing fall, the presidential election gave the office of chief magistrate to James Monroe, who entered upon its duties March 4, 1817.

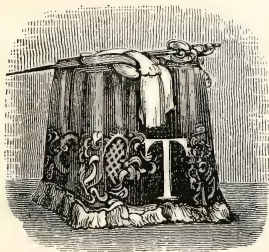




JAMES MONROE

CHAPTER XLIII.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MONROE.



HE new President entered upon the duties of his station under circumstances of great encouragement. Peace had been concluded with all belligerent powers, the great commotions which had so long disturbed Europe had subsided, and the energies of the country were beginning to recover what had been lost during the war. Mr. Monroe devoted his exertions to

the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, and in protecting the border settlements against incursions from the Indians. In 1817 the territory of Mississippi was formed into a state, and in the following year Illinois was also admitted. Alabama and Maine were in a little while added to the confederacy.

In 1817, an individual styling himself "Citizen Gregor McGregor, Brigadier-General of the armies of the United Provinces of New Grenada and Venezuela, and General-in-Chief employed to liberate the provinces of both the Floridas, commissioned by the supreme

government of Mexico and South America," landed with a party of adventurers at Amelia island, at the mouth of the St. Mary's river. These men soon showed that their object was outlawry and aggression; and when their means of perpetrating mischief were exhausted, they made the island a channel for the illicit introduction of slaves from Africa to the United States, an asylum for fugitive slaves from the neighbouring states, and a port for all kinds of smuggling. A similar establishment, but more extensive, was instituted on an island in the Gulf of Mexico, near the Texan coast, under the command of an adventurer named Aury. These two parties were soon afterwards united under the latter individual, who received a further accession to his strength by the arrival of about twenty British officers thrown out of employment by the general pacification of Europe. These outlaws conducted themselves in so outrageous a manner that the President was at length obliged to send against them a squadron and a battalion of artillery under Captain Henly. On the 22d of December he commanded Aury to evacuate the island with his company, leaving property as he found it; which being complied with, possession was taken on the following day.

Towards the close of the year General Jackson was ordered to assume the command of Fort Scott, so as to keep in check the Seminole and other Florida Indians, who had lately shown symptoms of insurrection. These savages had long been countenanced by the Spanish authorities in their incursions into the United States, a circumstance which made them peculiarly bold and reckless in the prosecution of hostilities. One of their most aggravated acts was an attack upon a boat carrying a number of women and wounded soldiers, under the direction of Lieutenant Scott. All who fell into their hands were murdered, and their scalps suspended from poles. The efforts to stop these outrages having hitherto been productive of little good, General Jackson determined to invade Florida and demand of the Spanish authorities satisfaction for their countenancing the Indians. Accordingly, collecting a number of volunteers and others who had served under him at New Orleans, he advanced into the Indian country, defeated the savages in several skirmishes, and then marched with twenty-eight hundred men for the Spanish fort of St. Marks. Here, contrary to his expectations, and to the reports which had led to the movement, he found no Indians present. He took possession, however, and shipped the garrison and authorities to Pensacola. One of the American vessels lying off the coast decoyed or

board the two chiefs Hillishago and Hornet Henrico, both of whom were subsequently hung.



JACKSON was now reinforced by fifteen hundred friendly Creeks, and with his whole force he marched against the towns belonging to the chief called Bowlegs. After chasing six mounted Indians, he entered the villages, killed eleven negroes and Indians, and took two prisoners. Here a person named Ambrister was taken prisoner; and, being accused of unlawfully aiding the savages, was tried by court-martial, together with one Arbuthnot, both of whom, being declared guilty, were hung.

For this occupation of a neutral territory General Jackson was subsequently called to account; but the measure was defended by the Secretary of State, Mr. J. Q. Adams; and soon after all complaints on the part of the Spanish authorities were silenced by a treaty ceding Florida to the United States.

Mr. Monroe, having been elected to a second term of office, signed, in 1824, a treaty with Russia relative to the north-western boundary, and another with Great Britain relative to the suppression of the African slave trade. The same year was signalized by the visit of Lafayette to our country. During his stay he visited most of the principal cities of the Union, and was everywhere received with the most enthusiastic marks of respect. Congress, being in session, voted him the sum of two hundred thousand dollars, and a township of land six miles square. At Boston he witnessed the ceremony of laying the corner-stone of the Bunker Hill Monument. On the 7th of September he sailed for France in the new frigate Brandywine, expressly fitted out for conveying him home.

At the presidential election of this year, J. Q. Adams was chosen by the House of Representatives, there being no choice by the popular vote.





JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

CHAPTER XLIV.

ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.



HE peaceful administration of Mr. Adams, renowned for the enlarged views of its chief officer, his liberal political tenets, and his respect for learning and religion, affords but little opportunity for the parade of historic description.

Soon after his inauguration he concluded a treaty with the Creeks, who ceded all their lands lying in the state of Georgia, for an equal extent of territory west of the Mississippi. The Kansas tribe ceded all their lands lying in and around Missouri, for the payment of an annual sum of thirty-five hundred dollars for twenty years. A similar agreement was made with the Great and Little Osages, who were to receive for their territories in Arkansas an annuity of seven thousand dollars for twenty years.

In 1825, a general convention of peace, amity, navigation, and commerce, was concluded with the Republic of Columbia; and, in the following year, similar ones with Denmark and Central America.

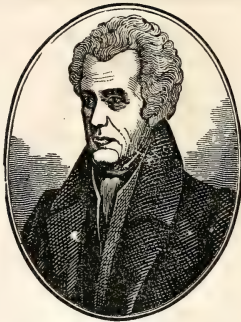
On the 4th of July, 1826, a singular coincidence took place in the death of the two ex-Presidents, Adams and Jefferson—the one at Quincy, in the ninety-first year of his age; the other at Monticello, in his eighty-third year. Each of these remarkable men had lived

to see their exertions for human rights crowned with the happiest success ; and, after having been elevated to the highest office in the gift of the people, both expired on the same day, just half a century after signing the Declaration of Independence at Philadelphia.

In 1828, a new tariff law was passed by Congress, which met with much opposition in the south. This tariff was very unpopular in the southern states, where the policy was considered unconstitutional and oppressive ; but it continued in force for years, notwithstanding the complaints of its opponents.

As the season for a new election of president approached, a strong party was formed in favour of General Jackson, who had been one of the candidates opposed to Mr. Adams at the previous election. Great efforts were used by each party, and the contest was most animated. The result was the defeat of Mr. Adams, and the election of General Jackson as President, and Mr. Calhoun as Vice-President, by a vote in the electoral colleges of one hundred and seventy-eight to eighty-three.





ANDREW JACKSON.

CHAPTER XLV.

ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JACKSON.



GENERAL JACKSON'S administration was one of the most important in the history of the country; and its strong features resulted

from the decided character of the man. His immense personal popularity and his unflinching determination enabled him to carry every important measure which he proposed. He was always in advance

of his party in his opinions on public policy; and in the cabinet, as in the field, he led where others hardly dared to follow.

On his first accession to office he boldly dismissed a larger number of the public functionaries than usual on a change of administration, and filled the vacancies thus created with his political friends.

Regarding the management of internal improvements by the general government as of dangerous tendency, the President on the 27th of May, 1830, refused to sign the bill authorizing a subscription to the stock of the Maysville and Lexington Road Company in Kentucky; and thus pronounced the subsequent policy of the government on this important question.



THOMAS H. BENTON.

In 1832, he adopted the same course with reference to the rechartering of the United States Bank, and thus prevented its being rechartered as a national institution, with features which are now considered exceptionable by all parties in the country.

In the spring of 1832, the Sacs, Foxes, and Winnebagoes in Wisconsin Territory commenced a war under the direction of Black Hawk, which was speedily terminated by the vigorous action of the government, and the chief was captured and taken to Washington.

During the same eventful year, the State of South Carolina, in convention, assumed a position of direct antagonism to the general government on the tariff question, and threatened a withdrawal from the Union. The President boldly met the issue; and his proclamation announcing his determination to enforce obedience to the laws received the cordial approval and support of Mr. Webster and the other great leaders of the opposition. To advocate the position which South Carolina maintained with ability, her most distinguished statesman, Mr. Calhoun, resigned his office of Vice-Presi



DESTRUCTION OF MAJOR DADE'S DETACHMENT.

ent, and was elected to a seat in the Senate. The period was one of intense excitement, and men were hourly expecting to see the first bloodshed of a civil war. Fortunately for the country, Mr. Clay, the great statesman of Kentucky, introduced his celebrated compromise bill, providing for the gradual reduction of duties till the year 1843, when they were to reach to the level of twenty per cent. This measure enabled the opponents of the tariff to retire with dignity from the menacing position which they had assumed, and the vexed question was laid at rest for a season. On the 4th of March, 1833, General Jackson entered upon the second term of his Presidency; Martin Van Buren being Vice-President.

In 1833, the commercial and monetary affairs of the country were considerably disturbed in consequence of the misunderstanding between the President and the managers of the United States Bank. Each party charged the other with disregarding the interests of the people in the struggle for victory. The President was very strongly solicited to restore the government deposits which he had caused to be removed from the bank; but having become convinced that the continued existence of the bank itself, constituted and managed as it was, would be injurious to the country, he remained firm in his purpose to separate it from all connection with the government. The bank obtained a new charter from the State of Pennsylvania, and subsequently failed. In his determination to oppose the bank,

the President was strongly supported in both houses of Congress, Mr. Benton, in the Senate, being particularly active in the cause.

In 1834, the President informed Congress that the French Chamber of Deputies had rejected the bill for indemnifying the United States for losses sustained under the action of the Berlin and Milan decrees. His message on the subject suggested retaliatory measures, breathing throughout a determination to insist upon indemnification. The French resented this language, and withdrew their minister; but subsequently paid the indemnity.

In the summer of this year some unhappy disturbances occurred with the Florida Indians, and a small force under General Clinch was ordered against them. Little was done by either party until the 28th of December, when Major Dade, with a detachment of seven officers and one hundred and two privates was surprised by a body of Indians and negroes, the whole number, except four, murdered, and the dead bodies subsequently stripped and mutilated. This was followed by like outrages on a smaller scale, which, during the whole of Jackson's second term, rendered the territory of Florida a field of bloodshed.

At the presidential election in 1836, Martin Van Buren was chosen President, and Richard M. Johnson Vice-President.



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

CHAPTER XLVI.

ADMINISTRATION OF MARTIN VAN BUREN



HE spirit of speculation, which seems periodically to visit great commercial countries, had been abroad in the United States during the latter part of General Jackson's administration. The consequent revulsion commenced on the very day when he left the chair of state. The usual consequences followed. Thousands of merchants failed, and the banks throughout the country suspended specie payments. The new President thought that the emergency warranted an extraordinary session of Congress, which, accordingly, commenced in September, 1837; and, during a session of forty days, passed several bills for the relief of the government, which had itself become embarrassed. The issue of treasury notes was authorized, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to establish what is called an independent treasury, transacting its affairs in specie, and having no connection with banks.

The war in Florida was continued during the whole of this administration, but finally was ended, by the subjugation of the Seminole tribes, and their subsequent removal west of the Mississippi. In 1837, the border conflicts, originating from the sympathy of many of our citizens with the Canadian patriots, increased

to such an extent as eventually threatened a direct collision with England. This general feeling was aggravated by an attack of the British upon the American steamer *Caroline*, which they set on and sent over the Falls. This led to an angry correspondence between the English minister and the Secretary of State, but eventually the matter was dropped. Subsequently there arose vexatious disputes concerning the Maine boundary, during which, citizens on each side of the line arrayed themselves in military costume, and occasionally came into open collision. The President issued a proclamation, forbidding all citizens of the United States to take part in these disturbances, and appointing General Winfield Scott as superintendent of the northern border until the question of boundary could be settled. The prevention of war between the two countries was in a great measure owing to the efforts of that officer.



CONVENTION for determining the boundaries with Texas was concluded at Washington, April 25, 1837. Treaties were also concluded with Peru, the Bolivian Confederacy, and the King of Greece. These were followed by fresh difficulties with Great Britain, and Congress authorized the President to raise a provisional army, appropriated money for fortifications and

for the repair of the national vessels, and the building of new ones. At the same time, special commissioners were appointed by both parties to settle the dispute by negotiation.

The greater portion of Van Buren's administration was occupied by his efforts to establish an independent treasury, into which the public moneys were to be deposited, after removal from the state banks. The collections were to be made in gold and silver. The measure was finally passed on the eve of the President's retirement from office.

The commercial revulsion in the country having produced a change of politics, the party opposed to the administration succeeded in electing their presidential candidate, General W. H. Harrison, [November, 1840,] by a large majority. John Tyler was chosen Vice-President.



WILLIAM H. HARRISON.

CHAPTER XLVII.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF HARRISON AND TYLER.



GENERAL HARRISON was inaugurated as President on the 4th of March, 1841. His services in the war of 1812 had given him popularity, and his subsequent discharge of the duties of several important diplomatic offices had inspired confidence in his abilities as a statesman. His inaugural address was an able paper, and received the approval of his political

friends. The cabinet appointments were judicious. That of Mr. Webster, as Secretary of State, ultimately proved very fortunate. But ere the President could give any further indication of his course of action—in one short month after his inauguration [April 4th, 1841] he died, after a short illness, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. Mr. Tyler, the Vice-President, was his constitutional successor, and immediately entered upon the duties of his station.

General Harrison had called an extra session of Congress, which met on the 27th of May. The Independent Treasury Act was re-



JOHN TYLER.

peated; and two several bills for establishing a new United States Bank, after passing both houses of Congress, were defeated by the veto of the President. This caused a total rupture between Mr. Tyler and the party by whom he had been elected; and the members of the cabinet, with the exception of Mr. Webster, immediately retired from office.

About this time, Alexander McLeod accused of being concerned in the attack upon the ill-fated Caroline, was arrested in New York, and the demand of the British minister for his release was refused. Great Britain assumed a belligerent attitude, but his trial took place at Utica in October. Fortunately for the cause of peace, he was acquitted, and thus one incentive to war between the two countries was removed. But as several questions of an irritating nature were still pending between the two governments, Lord Ashburton was sent by the British Prime Minister, as a special ambassador, with full powers to effect an amicable adjustment. He was met, on the part of the United States, by Mr. Webster, Secretary of State, and the negotiations lasted from April to August, on the 9th of which month the two ministers concluded a treaty, settling the line of the north-eastern boundary by a minute geographical description of the country through which it was to run, and also providing for the suppression of the slave trade. This treaty was approved by the two governments, and immediately after, Mr. Webster resigned his seat in the presidential cabinet. On the 31st of August, Congress adjourned, after a most laborious session, of which the most important act was a genera

bankrupt law, which, however, was repealed, after being a few months in operation.

The last act of Mr. Tyler's administration was the passage of a joint resolution by both houses of Congress, for the annexation of Texas to the United States. This was signed by the President on the 3d of March, 1845, and on the following day, James K. Polk, of Tennessee, took his seat as chief magistrate of the Union, having been elected by the democratic party in November. Before giving an account of the succeeding administration, we will notice the rise and progress of the republic of Texas, which, at the period which we have now reached became one of the states of the Union.





GENERAL HOUSTON.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

HISTORY OF TEXAS.



HE state and territory now forming part of the American Union, under the name of Texas, was until a comparatively recent period, a portion of Mexico; and, as such, formed one of the original Spanish American colonies. No attempt was made to settle it by any European power for

more than a century after the conquest of Cortes. In 1685, the French adventurer La Salle having been carried to the coast, built there a fort, and took possession of the country for France; he was subsequently killed, and his colony broken up; but ever after France

included what is now called Texas within the boundaries of Louisiana. In the years 1690-2, some Spanish missions were established along the coast, including, among others, the present town of San Antonio de Bexar. In 1763, Louisiana, including Texas, was ceded to Spain; but in 1800 it again reverted to France, and thus a fruitful source of dispute was afforded by the question of boundary.

Texas took an active part in the revolution which freed Mexico from Spain; but the narrative of her sufferings and triumphs at this time belongs rather to the history of the former country than to her own. It was this movement that, by drawing adventurers from the United States, first opened to our country a knowledge of the advantages and resources of Texas; and principally through the efforts of our people were the Texans and Mexicans enabled to achieve the victories of Goliad, Bexar, Medina, and others.

The treaty of 1819, by which Spain ceded Florida to the United States, fixed the Sabine river as the boundary between Louisiana and Texas. When Mexico achieved her independence, emigrants from the United States flocked into the latter territory, so that in a little while the population assumed all the distinguishing characteristics of our western states. One of the most influential of these settlers was Mr. Samuel Austin, after whom the present capital is named. Much of the early prosperity of the colony may be attributed to his influence. In 1824 Texas was united to Coahuila, both forming one state of the Mexican confederacy. From this time the population increased so rapidly as to alarm the Mexican authorities, and procure the passage of several laws restricting the privileges of foreign emigrants, and rendering the local government more and more severe. So arbitrary was the conduct of the authorities, that in 1832 a revolt took place, which resulted in driving Colonel Bradburn, commandant of the military post of Anahuac, from the country.

In August, 1833, Austin visited the city of Mexico for the purpose of presenting to the supreme government a petition on the part of Texas for a separation from Coahuila, and the formation of an independent state government. This gave great offence to the authorities; and when Austin, wearied by delays, wrote to the Texans to assume the responsibility of organizing the required government, he was arrested and thrown into prison. News of this proceeding produced the greatest ferment in Texas, and soon gave rise to a party

who declared their determination to separate, if possible, from the mother country. A political condition bordering on anarchy continued, until intelligence of the adoption of the "Plan of Toluco," abolishing the state governments, and substituting a central for a federal republic, was received. About the same time Austin returned from his long imprisonment. The people of Texas now refused their assent to the change in government, denouncing Santa Anna, the central president, as a tyrant and usurper, and declaring their determination of adhering to the constitution of 1824. In September, 1835, their central committee of safety, of which Austin was chairman, recommended the organization of militia and volunteer companies, and an immediate appeal to arms.



MEANWHILE Mexico had not been blind to these movements in the disaffected province. With characteristic promptitude Santa Anna had been ordering forces and supplies to the frontier, and in September General Cos arrived with a considerable army at San Antonio de Bexar. From this place he sent two hundred men to Gonzales, for the purpose of seizing a piece of cannon, which the inhabitants had refused to surrender. This force was attacked, October 2, by one hundred and sixty-eight Texans, totally defeated, and driven towards Bexar. This success was followed on the 8th by the capture of Goliad, with ten thousand dollars' worth of stores, two brass cannon, and three hundred small arms. The assailants numbered fifty, under Captain Collinsworth.

On the 20th of October, three hundred Texans, under Austin, took position within five miles of Bexar, in order to await reinforcements preparatory to an attack. On the 27th, ninety-two of their number, under Colonel Bowie and Captain Fannin, were attacked by a superior Mexican force, which they repulsed with loss. The siege of Bexar continued with but little progress until the 5th of December, when a separate volunteer force of three hundred men, under the veteran Milam, assaulted the works in two columns, took possession of two houses, and then worked their way from room to room in the interior, at the same time shooting the Mexicans from their guns through the windows. In this manner the battle was continued for six days, when General Cos agreed to capitulate. A large quantity of cannon, stores, and provisions, was given up, while Cos and his

men were dismissed on parol. Thus ended the first Mexican invasion of Texas.



MEANWHILE Austin had been sent to the United States as commissioner, and Samuel Houston succeeded him as commander-in-chief of the revolutionary forces. But a still harder struggle than that just terminated awaited the Texans. On the first of February, 1836, Santa Anna marched from Saltillo towards the Rio Grande with eight thousand men, and a large train of artillery, provisions, and stores. On the 23d he appeared with the greater part of his forces before San Antonio de Bexar. The garrison, of one hundred and fifty men, under William B. Travis, retired to the Alamo, and called upon the provisional government and neighbouring region for reinforcements. Here they were besieged by four thousand men and during two weeks sustained themselves against all the efforts of the enemy, as well as the ravages of weariness and famine, with a fortitude which has few parallels in modern history. The works were finally taken by assault, [March 6,] and the whole garrison, except a woman and a negro, put to the sword. The dead bodies, after having been subjected to the grossest indecencies, were thrown into a heap, and burned. The loss of the enemy has been estimated at from one thousand to fifteen hundred men.

On the 2d of March, a convention of delegates from all parts of Texas published a declaration of independence and total separation from the Mexican republic. A national constitution was formed on the 17th; and David G. Burnett, of New Jersey, chosen provisional President.

During the siege of the Alamo, General Urrea, with one division of the Mexican army, was marching along the coast, where he captured two parties of Texans, under Colonel Johnson and Captain King. Johnson and a few others escaped; but all the others were put to death. A third party, under Colonel Ward, was soon afterwards obliged to surrender. The garrison of Goliad, under Colonel Fannin, after evacuating that place, were pursued and surrounded by Urrea's forces, and finally obliged to capitulate, on promise of being treated as prisoners of war. But, on being returned to Goliad, they, with Ward's detachment, amounting in all to about four hundred men, were shot.

The news of this outrage created throughout the United States feelings of the strongest sympathy and indignation. Volunteers

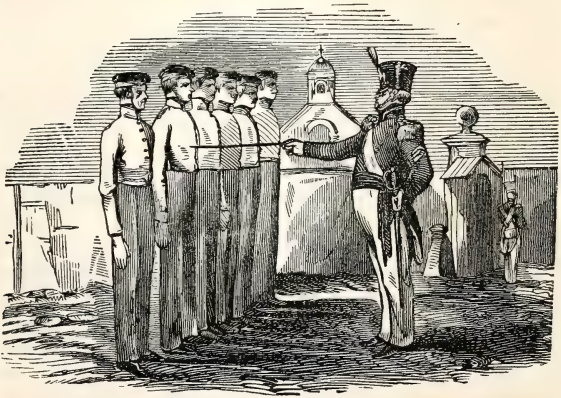
rushed to the assistance of the suffering patriots in such numbers that General Houston soon found himself in a situation to assume the offensive. On the 21st of April, with about eight hundred men, he came up with Santa Anna's force of sixteen hundred men at the San Jacinto river. Late in the afternoon a battle was commenced by a furious charge of cavalry to the battle-cry of "Remember the Alamo." So resistless was the onset, that in fifteen minutes the enemy's camp was carried, and his soldiers flying in all directions. The rout was total—six hundred and thirty of the Mexicans being killed, two hundred and eight wounded, and seven hundred and thirty made prisoners. The Texans lost but eight killed, and seventeen wounded. General Santa Anna was among the prisoners. He immediately concluded an armistice with General Houston, by the terms of which the Mexican forces then in Texas were immediately ordered to depart. This was effected under the direction of General Filisola. Soon after, Santa Anna signed a secret treaty with President Burnett, recognising the independence of Texas, and establishing the Rio Grande as a boundary.

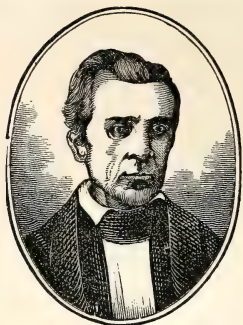


EARLY in September, the new government went into operation, by the election of General Houston as the first constitutional President, and Mirabeau B. Lamar as Vice-President. At the same time the people expressed their desire to be admitted, as a state, into the American Union; and a minister was appointed to negotiate at Washington for that purpose. On the 3d of March, 1837, the independence of Texas was acknowledged by the United States; but the proposal for annexation received no action. Meanwhile the Mexican Congress had disavowed the treaty signed by Santa Anna, and that chief himself disclaimed it when once more restored to liberty. Thus the war still continuing, excursions into the territory on the borders were frequently made by both nations, and a system of harassing warfare was carried on, alike unsatisfactory and ferocious. In the notable expeditions against Mier and Santa Fé the Texan parties were taken prisoners, marched into Mexico, and subjected to treatment at which humanity recoils. Nothing decisive was, however, effected; although, among foreign nations, Texas was generally acknowledged and dealt with as a sovereign nation.

Notwithstanding the failure of their first proposal for annexation to the United States, the people of Texas continued to cherish the

project, and from time to time attempted to bring about its execution. At length, under the presidency of General Houston, in 1845, a joint resolution to that effect passed the United States Congress, [February 28,] and was signed by President Tyler on the 3d of March. It was accepted by the constitutional convention of Texas on the 4th of July of the same year; so that from that date the history of Texas is merged in that of the great American republic.





JAMES K. POLK.

CHAPTER XLIX.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES K. POLK.—OPENING OF THE MEX- ICAN WAR.



RESIDENT POLK had been elected by the political party favourable to the annexation of Texas; and his first act was to lay before the government and citizens of the newly acquired territory the first and second sections of the joint resolution for their approval and acceptance. This being complied with, the American Congress, on the 29th of December, 1845, admitted Texas into the confederacy as a sovereign state. During the same session, the tariff law of 1842 was repealed, and another substituted, which considerably reduced the duties on many articles. The measure met with the determined opposition of the minority, and was carried in the Senate only through the casting vote of the Vice-President, Mr. Dallas. Its opponents claimed that it was insufficient both for revenue and protection.

Another important measure of the early part of this administration, was the establishment of an independent treasury, such as had existed under the administration of Mr. Van Buren. A short

time previous to this measure, the question concerning the northern boundary line of Oregon had been settled. The President had claimed the whole of this territory, up to $54^{\circ} 40'$; the British asserted an equal right with the United States, and the two Governments finally agreed on the 49th parallel.

Meanwhile, the relations between our country and Mexico were daily growing more critical, in consequence of the act which deprived the latter power of all hope of ever again regaining her authority in Texas. From the first intimations of the project of annexation, she had used all her influence to defeat it; and when the action of the joint resolution was consummated, she, through her minister, declared it to be "an act of aggression the most unjust which can be found recorded in the annals of modern history—namely, that of despoiling a friendly nation, like Mexico, of a considerable portion of her territory." Soon after, the minister was withdrawn. So strong was the popular feeling throughout that country, that President Herrera, who was disposed toward an amicable adjustment of the difficulty, was loudly denounced as a traitor, and a strong party, headed by General Paredes, raised against him. Anxious for peace, Herrera consented to receive a minister from the United States, clothed with full powers; but before negotiations could be opened, his administration had ended, and the new President, Paredes, refused to listen to overtures of peace.

Previous to this, President Polk, [March 21, 1845,] had issued orders to General Zachary Taylor, to prepare the troops at Fort Jessup, where he commanded, for marching into Texas as soon as required. Soon after, the general was instructed to take up a favourable position in that territory, which he did by occupying Corpus Christi, on the Gulf of Mexico. After remaining here until the following spring, he was ordered to take up a position on the Rio Grande—the American Government claiming that river as the boundary. On the 8th of March, he broke up his camp, and moved toward that river, taking possession, in his route, of Point Isabel, as a depot for his public stores. Before reaching it, he had been met by two small parties of Mexicans, one of which fled, after a show of resisting his passage of the Arroya Colorado, and the other, a civil deputation, after protesting in the name of the local government, against the occupation of their territory, retired to Matamoros. General Taylor left a small force under Major Monroe, at Point Isabel, with directions to fortify the place in the best manner



J O R P U S C H R I S T I

possible. It had been set on fire by the Mexicans, but the flames were extinguished, and the authorities and straggling soldiers driven away by a detachment of dragoons under Colonel Twiggs. At eleven o'clock, A. M., of March 28, the American army reached the Rio Grande, and planted the national flag opposite Matamoras. On the same day, Colonel Worth was sent across the river with despatches for the authorities; but his interview with the prefect and other officers was productive of nothing decisive.

The first care of the American general was the erection of the system of defences subsequently known as Fort Brown. At the same time, the Mexicans raised batteries and mounted cannon, for a considerable distance along the river. As yet, however, war had not been proclaimed by either government, nor had any thing occurred to interrupt the friendly relations hitherto existing between the two nations.

On the 10th of April, Colonel Cross, quarter-master general of the army of occupation, was murdered by a band of outlaws, while riding from camp, to take his customary daily exercise. His body was not recovered until the 21st. Meanwhile, Lieutenant Porter and three others, who, with a small party, had been sent out to reconnoitre, were waylaid and killed.

On the 26th, General Taylor received information that the Mexicans were crossing the river, both above and below the fort. In



POINT ISABEL

order to be satisfied of the correctness of this report, he despatched Captain Ker with a small party, to the landing below, and Captain Thornton to that above. The former soon returned without seeing an enemy. Thornton's party fell into an ambush, was completely surrounded, and soon after separated into two portions. The captain's horse, being severely wounded, leaped the chaparral fence which enclosed him, and ran at full speed toward the American camp. Both, however, were captured, and taken into Matamoras. Meanwhile, the party now commanded by Captain Hardee, after fighting with great bravery, was overpowered by numbers, and induced to surrender, on a promise of good treatment. Soon after these accidents, the Mexicans crossed the Rio Grande in large numbers, and spread themselves between General Taylor's camp and that of Major Monroe, thus cutting off the communication between them.

On ascertaining the danger of his main depot, General Taylor resolved on marching immediately to its relief. With the greater part of his army, he left his camp on the 1st of May, and arrived at Point Isabel on the evening of the 2d, having met with no opposition from the Mexicans. A regiment of infantry, and two companies of artillery, were left at the river fort, under the command of Major Jacob Brown.

Intelligence of the hostile operations of the Mexicans having been transmitted to the seat of government, the facts were formally announced to Congress by a message of the President, on the 11th of May, 1846. On the 13th, Congress passed an act declaring the existence of war between the two republics, empowering the President to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers, and appropriating ten millions of dollars to defray expenses. Thus authorized, the executive issued a proclamation, invoking the aid of the nation in carrying on the war.



GENERAL TAYLOR

CHAPTER L.

OPERATIONS OF GENERAL TAYLOR.



THE departure of General Taylor from the fort opposite Matamoras was the signal for the opening of the war. Early on the morning of May 3, the Mexican batteries in Matamoras commenced a heavy fire upon the river fort, which continued the greater part of the day, and was answered at intervals by the garrison. One sergeant was killed, and considera

injury done to tents and other articles within the fort. The attack was renewed on the 5th, the assailants having erected a field battery during the night, and drawn up a large reserve force in rear of the American works, for the purpose of storming them. The bombardment continued during the greater part of the morning, and was renewed with much spirit on the 6th. On the forenoon of this day Major Brown was mortally wounded, by the bursting of a shell from the enemy's batteries, and the command devolved on Captain Hawkins. In the afternoon, that officer was summoned to surrender, and on his refusing, the assault was renewed, and continued during that and the following day. It was kept up at intervals on the 8th, until the sound of cannon, from the direction of Point Isabel, arrested the attention of both parties.

General Taylor, as has already been stated, arrived at Point Isabel with the greater part of his army, on the 2d. After placing the fortifications in the best state of defence, and taking all other precautions necessary to the security of the post, he again marched for the river fort, May 7. After advancing about seven miles, the army bivouacked on the open plain, and resumed its march on the following morning. At noon, the advance reached the watering-place of Palo Alto, near which the Mexican army was drawn up across the road, in order of battle. Here General Taylor halted, in order to afford his troops an opportunity to refresh themselves with cold water, preparatory to forming the line. The Mexican army was plainly visible across the prairie—their left, composed of a heavy cavalry force, occupying the road, resting upon the thicket of chaparral, while masses of infantry, greatly outnumbering the American forces, were on the right.

At two o'clock the Americans moved forward by heads of columns, their eighteen-pound battery following the road. At the same time Lieutenant Blake and another officer made a close and daring reconnaissance of the enemy's line, which resulted in the discovery of several batteries of artillery in the intervals of their infantry and cavalry. These guns soon opened upon the American line, and were answered by all General Taylor's artillery. As the Mexican fire did little execution, their cavalry endeavoured to pass round some neighbouring chaparral, in order to outflank the American right; but this movement was defeated by the active exertions of Captain Walker's volunteers, aided by some artillery under Captain Ridgely. So violent was the cannonading on both sides, that the grass of the prairie



BATTLE OF PALO ALTO.

was fired, the smoke from which hid the armies from each other, and caused a suspension of hostilities for nearly an hour. This interval gave opportunity to each general to form a new line of battle, so that when the atmosphere became clear the action was resumed with increased vigour. The slaughter among the dense masses of cavalry was very great; while, on the other hand, Major Ringgold, chief artilleryist of the Americans, was mortally wounded, and several of the infantry killed. The firing continued with but little intermission until dark, when the Mexicans withdrew into the neighbouring chaparral. The whole engagement had been one of artillery; for, although the enemy's cavalry made several attempts upon the American flank, they were in no instance near enough to risk a charge; and the discharge of small arms towards the close of the action was of but short continuance and of little effect. The loss of the Americans was nine killed, and forty-six wounded and missing. Their total force was nearly twenty-nine hundred; that of the Mexicans about six thousand. Both armies encamped for the night on or around the battle-field.

On the morning of the 9th, the Mexicans were discovered moving by their left flank so as to gain a new position on the road to Matamoras, and there again resist the advances of the Americans. Gene-



BATTLE OF PALO ALTO

OSLEY DEL



CAPTAIN MAY

al Taylor immediately prepared for battle, by ordering his supply train packed, and leaving with it four pieces of artillery, and sending his wounded to Point Isabel. Then halting his columns at the edge of the chaparral which extends several miles towards the Rio Grande, he threw forward some light troops and infantry, under Captain McCall, to reconnoitre the thickets, and report in case of meeting an enemy. The captain soon came upon small bodies of infantry posted in the chaparral, who immediately opened upon him with musketry and, in endeavouring to advance, he found himself in front of a large portion of the Mexican army. This being reported to General Taylor, he ordered forward successive portions of his army, who, immediately closing with the Mexican forces, soon brought on a general engagement. The enemy being securely posted in almost impenetrable thickets, and having their batteries planted in a ravine which crossed and commanded the road, fought with an obstinacy rare



MATAMORAS

among Mexican troops, and yielded their ground only when driven inch by inch with the bayonet. Their artillery continued to pour an incessant shower of grape and canister shot into the American ranks. As the result of the battle depended upon the possession of these guns, Captain May was ordered to charge the batteries with his squadron of dragoons, which he did in gallant style, sweeping the artillerists from their posts, and driving back the supporting infantry. Several of the cavalry were killed, while La Vega, a Mexican general, was taken prisoner. Soon after the eighth infantry arrived to May's assistance, and succeeded in securing the guns and driving the Mexicans from the left of the road. The enemy were finally repulsed at every point; and, leaving their camp and baggage, they fled precipitately towards the river. Being hotly pursued, numbers were killed in the flight, and many more drowned in attempting to cross the Rio Grande. The approach of General Taylor's army was hailed by the garrison at little Fort Brown with the most enthusiastic applause, and the two eighteen-pounders within the fort were opened upon the flying enemy. After providing for his wounded, General Taylor bivouacked near the river bank, within view of Matamoras and the garrison under Captain Hawkins.

The marching force of the Americans on this day was rather more than twenty-two hundred, but the number actually engaged in the battle appears to have been no greater than seventeen hundred. The Mexican force probably numbered six thousand men, as they had been reinforced during the night by bodies of infantry and cavalry. General Taylor's loss was thirty-nine killed, including three officers, and eighty-three wounded. The loss of the Mexicans in both battles is estimated by General Taylor at one thousand men.

Had General Taylor possessed the means necessary for crossing the river he could easily have completed his victory by the capture of Matamoros. This, however, he was unable to do until the 18th. Meanwhile an exchange of prisoners restored Captain Thornton and his men to the Americans; while, about the same time, Majors Brown and Ringgold died of their wounds. Barita, a small but important post below Matamoros, was taken possession of on the 15th by Lieutenant-Colonel Wilson and a considerable body of infantry. Three days after, the general crossed with his whole army, and demanded an unconditional surrender of the city. After some delay this demand was complied with. The American flag was substituted for the Mexican, and a new civil government formed, at the head of which was Colonel Twiggs. Arista, with the whole Mexican army, had evacuated the city on the evening previous, and was then marching with all speed to Reynosa, where he expected to be joined by President Paredes.

Although General Taylor was thus placed in possession of all the region watered by the southern portion of the Rio Grande, yet he was still in no condition to advance into the interior of Mexico; nor was it until the latter part of August that his earnest and repeated demand for supplies had been answered so far as to enable him to commence his march for the city of Monterey. Meanwhile he had detached small parties against the towns of Mier, Camargo, and Reynosa, all of which were occupied without resistance. Towards the end of August General Worth, with his division, was ordered to Serralvo, from which place, on the 5th of September, he informed General Taylor that Monterey had been reinforced by a large body of Mexicans under General Ampudia.

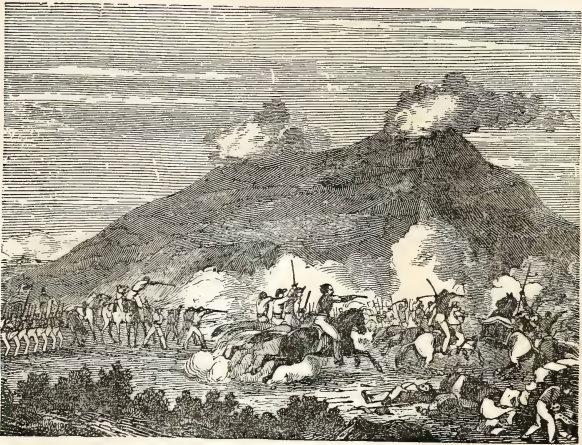
As the reduction of this city was considered essential to the success of any ultimate expedition against the capital in this direction, the American commander determined to attack it without further loss of time. Accordingly, with about seven thousand men, he marched



GENERAL TAYLOR ADVANCING TO MONTEREY.

for Seralvo on the 7th, leaving General Patterson in command of all the forces stationed at various posts between Camargo and Matamoros. After collecting supplies at Seralvo, he hurried on without waiting for reinforcements, and on the morning of the 19th reached the Walnut Springs, three miles from Monterey. Here a careful reconnoissance showed that in addition to the proper works of the city, which were very strong, the enemy had erected a number of small forts on the hills adjacent, as well as fortified the strong building on Independence Hill, known as the Bishop's Palace. As these works commanded the western approach to the city, General Taylor determined to detach against them one division of his army under General Worth, while, with the main force, he conducted in person the assault upon the city.

On the 20th General Worth with his division moved by a circuitous route to the Saltillo road, leading to Independence Hill. Early on the morning of the 21st, his cavalry force, under Colonel Hays, encountered a large body of the enemy, both on foot and horseback. These were defeated with loss, and soon after Worth gained a posi



CAVALRY ACTION OF THE 21ST SEPTEMBER.

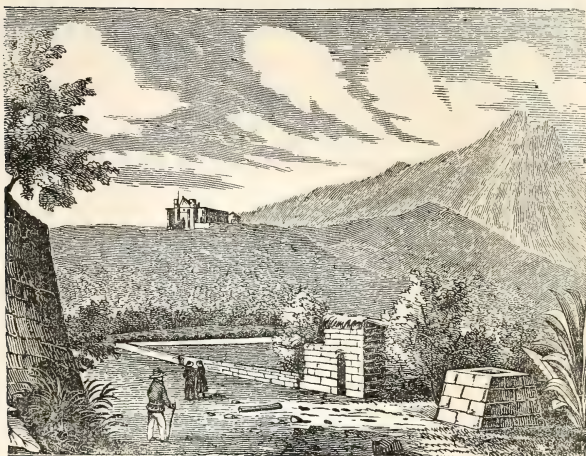
tion on the road favourable for an attack. The first fort on Federation Hill was gallantly stormed by a small party under Captain Smith, assisted by Captain Miles and a body of Texas rangers under Colonel Hays. Immediately after, Fort Soldada was carried by a portion of the same force, assisted by a regiment under Colonel Persifer F. Smith. The guns of both these places were turned against the Bishop's Palace, and every preparation made for attacking that strong fortress on the following day.

Meanwhile, to favour Worth's enterprise, the American commander ordered the first regiment of regulars, under General Twiggs, and the volunteers under General Butler, to make a diversion against the centre and left of the town. The enemy's defences in this quarter had been constructed with so much labour that every house appeared to be a fortification, and each street was raked throughout its greatest extent, with fires from heavily mounted batteries. In endeavouring to approach Fort Teneria, General Butler's troops became entangled in this labyrinth of difficulties, and suffered most severely. After much loss, the fort was finally carried with the bayonet. At the same time, the Baltimore battalion, under their leader Colonel Watson, approached the city from the west, but unfortunately

got into a narrow lane or street, where they were exposed both to direct and cross-fires, of some of the enemy's most active batteries. The greater part of the battalion were either killed or wounded, and the remainder saved from a similar fate only by throwing themselves at full length into a narrow ditch.

The 22d passed without any active operations in the lower part of the city. The greater part of the morning was occupied in burying the dead. The citadel, and other works, continued to fire at parties exposed to their range, and at the garrison in Fort Teneria. Captain Bragg's battery was placed under cover in front of the town, to repel any demonstration of the enemy's cavalry in that quarter. But the day was far otherwise employed by General Worth. Before daylight, a strong party under Colonel Childs, assisted by Captains Vinton and Scott, and Lieutenant Ayres, commenced the ascent of the hill surmounted by the Bishop's Palace. After incredible toil, they reached a position suitable for opening upon the works; but so strong were the walls, that little or no impression could be made. In a short time, a body of lancers appeared on the crest of the hill; but being charged, they broke and fled in confusion toward the palace, the gates of which opening to receive them, were entered simultaneously by friend and foe. Once within, the Americans soon cleared the walls of the garrison, while Lieutenant Ayres mounted the halcyards and pulled down the Mexican flag. Two pieces of artillery were captured, with a large quantity of ammunition, and some small arms. Seven of the assailants were killed and twelve wounded.

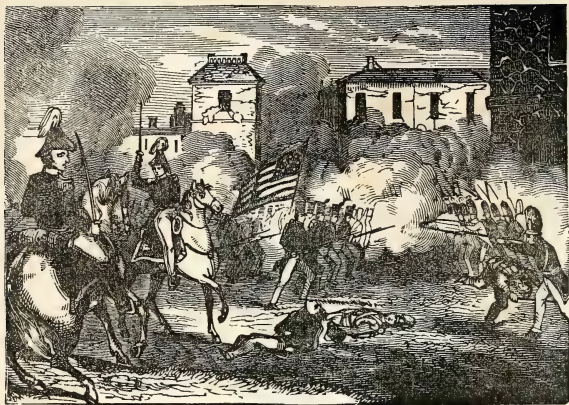
On the following morning, a combined attack was made upon the town by the forces of General Taylor on the east, and General Worth on the west. Directing their movements to the Grand Plaza, the central focus of the city, the troops moved slowly along the least dangerous approaches. By daylight, it was ascertained that the enemy had abandoned all their lower defences, and thrown their main army into the cathedral, and the works near the centre. These were immediately occupied by the Americans, who opened from them a heavy fire of both artillery and musketry. The remaining troops advanced from street to street, until within one square of the principal plaza. This advance, though vigorous, was conducted with due caution, thus being attended with but little loss to the assailants, while their opponents suffered severely. Toward evening, the commander, after battering down a portion of the cathedral, halted his troops, and sent orders to General Worth to renew the



BISHOP'S PALACE, MONTEREY.

attack, in combination with his own force, on the following morning. Although such great success had attended the operations of the Americans, the labour of storming the city was as yet but half accomplished. The citadel, main cathedral, and other large works, were still garrisoned by the enemy; and had they still continued the defence, it is more than probable that the loss of the Americans would have been more serious than on the three previous days. This, however, they failed to do. Early on the morning of the 24th, the American commander received, through General Worth, a communication from General Ampudia, the Mexican commandant, proposing to evacuate the town upon certain conditions. Commissioners were appointed by each general, and after a long and tedious negotiation, terms of capitulation were agreed upon, and signed by the two commanders. These were, in substance, that the city, with all its public property, should be surrendered to the Americans; that the Mexican army should march out with their muskets, six pieces of cannon, and twenty rounds of ammunition; and that during an armistice of eight weeks, neither army should pass a certain specified line.

On occupying the city, it was found to be of great strength, and



STORMING OF MONTEREY.

to have all its approaches strongly fortified. The works were mounted with forty-two pieces of cannon, well supplied with ammunition, and during the siege had been manned by from nine to ten thousand men. The assailants numbered rather more than six thousand six hundred ; while their artillery consisted of one ten-inch mortar, two twenty-four pound howitzers, and four light field batteries, of four guns each. Their loss was twelve officers, and one hundred and eight men killed ; thirty-one officers and three hundred and thirty-seven men wounded. The loss of the Mexicans was never known, but it was supposed considerably to exceed that of the Americans.

Monterey now became the head-quarters of the American army. During the autumn, General Taylor detached Brigadier-General Worth, with twelve hundred men and eight pieces of artillery, to Saltillo, while Brigadier-General Wool, with the column under his command, numbering twenty-four hundred strong, and having six pieces of artillery, was ordered to the town of Parras, seventy miles north-east of Worth's position. Saltillo lies about seventy miles from Monterey, at an elevation of two thousand feet above that city. These two places were occupied without opposition, the enemy having previously fallen back to San Luis Potosi.



GENERAL TAYLOR TAKING LEAVE OF THE TROOPS

Meanwhile, President Paredes had been deposed, and General Santa Anna appointed Dictator of Mexico. After raising a large army, that officer established his head-quarters at Potosi, designing to raise a sufficiency of supplies to enable him to arrest the further progress of General Taylor. Early in 1847, most of that officer's regular troops were withdrawn by General Scott, which so reduced his numbers as to force him to abandon his designs upon the Mexican capital and to fall back toward Monterey. General Taylor took leave of the troops who left him, in a very feeling address. The arrival of volunteers under General Wool again enabled him to move forward, so that on the 21st of February, ascertaining that Santa Anna was moving rapidly upon him with twenty thousand men, he took up a strong position at the pass of Augustura, three miles from Buena Vista, and seven from Saltillo. On the following day, the Mexican forces were observed approaching over the neighbouring mountains; and immediately after, General Taylor received a summons to surrender, which he refused. Toward evening, a brisk cannonade was commenced upon the Americans, but with little or no effect. A portion of the enemy's infantry then wound along the

gorge; and hills to the left of the general's position, and opened a heavy fire upon that flank. It was returned by a portion of the Kentucky mounted regiment, under Colonel Marshall, and the skirmish lasted until after dark. Three Americans were wounded.

During the night, General Taylor retired to Saltillo, leaving with General Wool the care of providing for the commencement of the attack. On the following morning, the action was renewed in earnest. The American army did not number more than five thousand men; yet these coolly prepared to resist the overwhelming host, whose dark lines of infantry were drawn out as far as the eye could reach, while the cavalry appeared in dense columns, presenting the most gaudy appearance. Before sunrise, a large body of both foot and horse moved toward the point which had been the scene of conflict on the preceding night, evidently with the intention of turning the American left flank, and penetrating to the centre. To prevent this, General Taylor ordered Sherman's and Bragg's batteries to the threatened position, the second Illinois regiment, under Colonel Bissel, occupying a position between them. The second Kentucky regiment was placed near the centre. The extreme left was supported by the second Indiana regiment, under Colonel Bowles, so placed as to check, by a direct fire, the enemy's flank movements. The battle was opened on both sides by the artillery, which was soon followed by the musketry of the Mexican right. Notwithstanding the great disparity in numbers, the Americans maintained their ground with firmness, each regiment vying with the others in the obstinacy of their resistance.

At the same time, the Mexican cavalry were winding slowly along the mountain defiles, and notwithstanding the havoc caused by the American artillery, they succeeded in gaining a position close to the rear, and in view of the stores at Buena Vista. To prevent their further advance, General Taylor sent forward his artillery, extended his front, and opened a combined fire of rifles and cannon upon the approaching lancers. The action now raged with terrible effect, but although at the first shock the cavalry reeled and fell back, they twice rallied, and it was not until they had been divided into two bodies, that this vigorous attempt was abandoned.

At this critical position of his affairs, Santa Anna sent a flag of truce to the American general, desiring to know "what he wanted." A temporary cessation of hostilities took place, during which the detached cavalry were enabled to regain the main body. This again



REPULSE OF THE MEXICAN CAVALRY AT BUENA VISTA.

gave the enemy a large numerical superiority, which enabled them almost completely to overwhelm the second Kentucky regiment, and drive the second Indiana from the field. Captain O'Brien, with two pieces of artillery, sustained this heavy charge to the last, but was finally compelled to leave his guns on the field. Perceiving their advantage, the enemy rushed on in dense masses, captured the guns, and the Indians retreating by order of Colonel Bowles, the Mexicans advanced upon the Kentucky regiment, under Colonels McKee and Clay, and the Mississippi regiment, under Colonel Jefferson Davis. At this moment, by order of General Taylor, Captain Bragg threw himself into action, and opened his battery within a few yards of the Mexican cavalry. By this daring movement, the enemy's progress was suddenly arrested, and his whole body of lancers driven back. But during their retreat, they attacked the second Kentucky regiment, which had pursued beyond supporting distance. The gallant troops composing it were overwhelmed with immense slaughter, and driven into a ravine, where they were saved from total annihilation only by the timely discharge of a battery placed there under command of Captain Washington. The remainder of the American artillery then opened a heavy fire upon the Mexican right flank, which contributed materially to his final repulse. Night had now fallen upon



COLO EL JEFFERSON DAVIS.

ne field, and each army appeared unwilling further to test the strength of the other. Notwithstanding the numerous changes in position, the forces occupied nearly the same ground as they had in the morning. The Americans expected a renewal of the battle on the following day; but the disheartened condition of the Mexicans rendered this impossible; and before daylight, Santa Anna, with his troops, was in full retreat to Agua Nueva.

In this action the Americans lost two hundred and sixty-seven killed, four hundred and fifty-six wounded, and twenty-three missing. The killed and wounded of the enemy have been estimated at more than two thousand, nearly five hundred of their dead being left upon the field. The relative loss of officers among the Americans is surprising y great, and comprises some of the brightest ornaments to the service. The names of Colonels Yell, Hardin, Clay, McKee,

Captain Lincoln, and others, will long be remembered in connection with the price at which this victory was bought.

The report of this action was sent toward the seat of government, in care of Mr. Crittenden, escorted by Major Giddings, with two hundred and sixty men. This force was attacked by General Urrea, with a numerous body of lancers, but succeeded in driving him off with loss. The major had two soldiers and fifteen teamsters killed. Immediately after, General Taylor started in pursuit of Urrea, having with him Captain May's dragoons, and two companies of artillery. The pursuit continued as far as Caidereta, when the Mexican general succeeded in escaping beyond the mountains. General Taylor then fell back upon Monterey, and, with General Wool, concerted a plan for marching against San Luis Potosi. This he was prevented from executing, by a second demand for troops made upon him by General Scott, which deprived him of nearly all the officers and men by whom he had been so nobly sustained at Buena Vista. Toward the close of the year, he returned to the United States, leaving the command of the army at Monterey with General Wool.





COLONEL FREMONT

CHAPTER LI.

OPERATIONS IN CALIFORNIA AND NEW MEXICO.



No sooner had war been determined on between the United States and Mexico, than the attention of the former country was turned toward those vast provinces lying to the north of Mexico proper, and over which she had at no time held more than a nominal sway. Accordingly, almost simultaneously with the operations of General Taylor against Matamoras, a military force of three hundred dragoons, and three thousand Missouri volunteers, was concentrated at Fort Leavenworth, under Brigadier-General

Kearny for the purpose of marching against New Mexico. A portion of these operations have been narrated in the history of California ; but a summary sketch, although at the risk of some repetition, seems necessary here, in order to preserve the natural connection of dates. On the 18th of August, 1846, this army took possession of the capital city, Santa Fé, where Kearny organized a free government, under the direction of the United States, formed a code of laws, and appointed Charles Bent governor. On the 25th of September, he marched for Upper California, leaving orders with Colonel Doniphan to proceed with about one thousand men, against the Navajo Indians.

Doniphan carried on his campaign against the Indians until the 14th of December ; and on the 17th, he again set forward on an expedition to the south, leaving Colonel Price at Santa Fé with fifteen hundred men. Immediately after his departure, an insurrection of the inhabitants took place, which was suppressed with difficulty ; and this was followed by the murder of Governor Bent and others, by secret parties throughout the country. So strong was the popular feeling against the Americans, that on the 24th of February, a large body of the insurgents attacked Colonel Price at La Canada, but were repulsed. Another battle took place on the 29th, at the strong post of El Embudo, where the Mexicans were defeated with considerable loss. Price then marched to Puebla de Taos, which was attacked on the 4th of February, and after a vigorous assault, which lasted all day, compelled to capitulate. The principal leaders of the conspiracy were shot, after which Price returned to Santa Fé.

Meanwhile Colonel Doniphan had been fighting his way toward El Paso del Norte. On Christmas day he was attacked at Bracito by eleven hundred men, and though his own force actually engaged was only about five hundred, he defeated his assailants with the loss of two hundred in killed and wounded. On the 29th, he entered El Paso, and on the 8th of February marched for Chihuahua. At the pass of Sacramento he encountered four thousand of the enemy, strongly posted behind a system of twenty-seven redoubts, and having ten pieces of cannon. Doniphan's force was nine hundred and twenty-four men, who were obliged to protect a train of three hundred and fifty wagons, besides the regular army train. But so intimidated were the Mexicans, that on being assailed, they abandoned their works, after a slight resistance, and fled over the adjacent



BATTLE OF BRACITO.

mountains. Two Americans were killed, and seven wounded. On the 1st of March, formal possession was taken of Chihuahua. Receiving orders from General Wool to join his command at Saltillo, Doniphan reached that place May 23, 1847, and soon after, his command was reviewed by General Taylor. When the term of service of his troops expired, he returned with them to New Orleans.

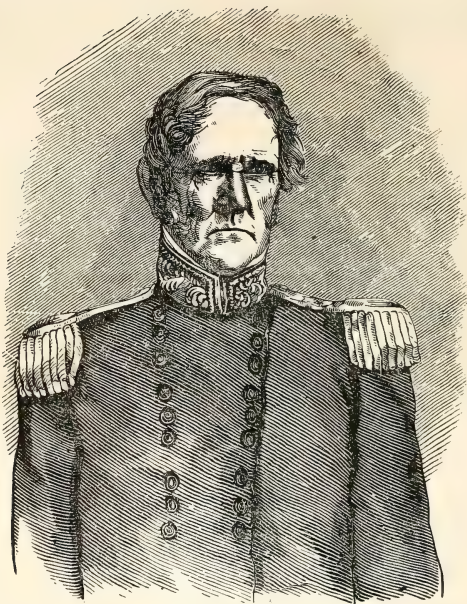
During these events, Lieutenant-Colonel Fremont, who had originally been sent into California on a scientific expedition, had raised a considerable force of mounted men, with which he commenced operations against the Mexican troops in his vicinity. On the 13th of June, he captured thirteen men and two hundred horses, belonging to General Castro, and on the 15th, he took possession of Sanoma pass, containing a small garrison, nine cannon, and a number of muskets. On the Pacific coast, Commodore Sloat had taken the sea-port of Monterey, and on the 12th of August, a body of riflemen under Fremont, and Commodore Stockton, Sloat's successor, took possession of Ciudad de los Angeles, of which Fremont was appointed governor. On the 11th of December, Kearny reached the city of San Diego, in California, having five days previously gained a victory



GENERAL KEARNY WOUNDED AT SAN PASQUAL.

at San Pasqual, where, with many of his officers and men, he was wounded. On the 8th of January, he fought another battle to recapture the city of Los Angeles, which had been taken by the Mexicans. Being successful, quiet was for a short period restored to California.

On the 16th of November, Colonel Burton, with a little garrison at La Paz, was attacked by a considerable force of the enemy, raised principally among the neighbouring towns, and sustained a trying siege of nearly a week's duration. Nearly at the same time, Lieutenant Heywood was assaulted at San Jose, but succeeded in driving away the enemy after two days' skirmishing. The whole population of New Mexico and California was so discontented with the government of the Americans, that small parties were organized throughout these territories for the purpose of keeping alive the remembrance of their connection with the Mexican government. These finally assumed so serious an aspect as to oblige General (formerly Colonel) Price to take the field with a large force. On the 9th of March, that officer laid siege to Santa Cruz de Rosales, which was defended by a military garrison under General Trias. After a bombardment, which lasted until the 16th, and a furious assault on that day, the city surrendered. This action closed the military events of the war in California and New Mexico.



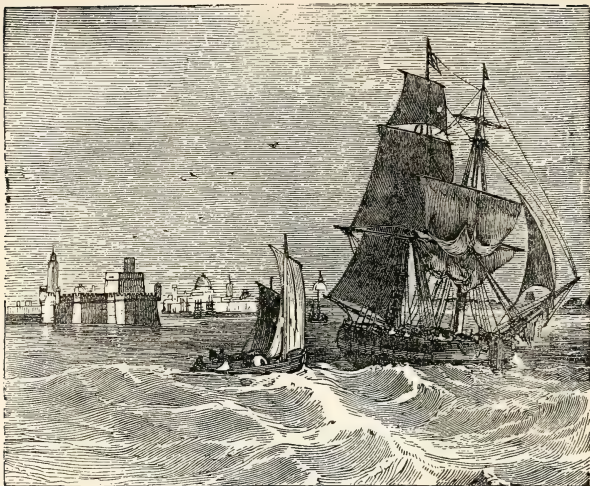
GENERAL SCOTT

CHAPTER LII.

CAMPAIGN OF GENERAL SCOTT

THE favourite scheme of the American government, during the Mexican war, was to conduct an expedition against the enemy's capital, by way of Vera Cruz, and a land march towards the interior. The first step in this operation was the reduction of the latter city, with its strong castle of San Juan de Ulloa. Its execution was confided to Major-General Scott, who arrived at the mouth of the Rio Grande, January 1 1847. After detaching a large number of troops from the "Army of Occupation," he embarked [March

7] with twelve thousand men, on board the squadron of Commodore Conner, and on the 9th of March landed his army near Vera Cruz. On the following day, after a slight opposition from the enemy, the city was formally invested, and the fleet commenced the landing of mortars and other pieces necessary for a siege. On the 13th, notwithstanding a heavy fire from the town, the Americans had succeeded in completing the entire investing line, which occupied a space of ground eight miles in length, and completely circumscribed the city. From this time to the 22d they were occupied in landing and planting their batteries, although exposed to a severe fire of artillery from the city and castle. About noon of the 22d, General Scott summoned the city to surrender, but Governor Morales replied that sooner than do so he would bury himself beneath its ruins. Immediately upon the reception of this answer, the general ordered his men into position, and opened upon the city with his mortars. This was retorted on the part of the enemy with shells and shot; and the firing on both sides, from the time of opening until the night of the 25th, was heavy, and with but little interruption. On the 22d the smaller vessels of the American fleet took up a position close to the shore, and added their fire to that of the land forces, with much effect. On the following day, this little fleet, after doing material injury to the fortifications, was withdrawn to a position of greater safety. On the 26th, a violent north-east set in, which raised such quantities of sand as completely filled the trenches, and caused a temporary cessation of hostilities. Communication with the fleet was also cut off. But so destructive had been the fire of the Americans, both to life and property, that the citizens petitioned their governor to open negotiations of surrender. This he resolutely declined to do, declaring his determination to yield only when it would no longer be possible for him to fire a gun. But terror at the sight of the surrounding scenes of destruction overcoming every other feeling, Morales was finally obliged to resign, and General Landero was elected in his stead. Early on the morning of the 27th that officer sent a flag of truce to General Scott, proposing to surrender the city by itself. To this the general-in-chief replied that he could not stipulate for either city or castle apart from the other. But, during the same day, negotiations were again opened by the enemy, which finally resulted in the surrender of both Vera Cruz and its castle. Generals Worth and Pillow, with Colonel Totten, were the American commissioners; Villanueva, Herrera, and Robles, those of the enemy. In substance,



VERA CRUZ.

the terms of capitulation were, that the Mexican officers should retire to their houses on parole, carrying with them their arms and private effects; their army was to be dismissed on parole, while public property of every description was to be given up to the United States, on condition of being restored to Mexico by a definite treaty of peace. On the 29th the surrender took place. Leaving the city and castle, the Mexicans marched between the extended lines of their conquerors, stacked their arms, laid down the national colours, and departed for the interior. Immediately after this ceremony, General Scott entered Vera Cruz, at the head of General Worth's division, and in company with the chief officers of the army and navy. When the national flag was hoisted over the castle and main plaza, salutes were fired from the guns of the castle, the city batteries, and the squadron. General Worth was appointed military governor of the city, Colonel Belton of the castle, and Major Scott of the strong work called Fort Santiago.

The loss of the Americans during this siege was but seventeen killed, and twenty-eight wounded; that of the Mexican army has never been ascertained. So destructive was the American artillery



LANDING OF THE AMERICAN ARMY AT VERA CRUZ

that it has been estimated that at least five hundred non-combatants were killed by the bursting of bombs through houses, or among crowds collected in the streets. The quantity of military stores taken by General Scott's army was very great. Besides four thousand stand of arms laid down by the enemy in retiring, one thousand more were found in the city; four hundred pieces of cannon, with a vast amount of shells, powder, and shot, were found either in position or in stores.

On the 30th, Commodore Perry, successor to Conner in the command of the Gulf Squadron, detached the steamer Scourge, Lieutenant Hunter, to blockade the port of Alvarado, which had been twice



COMMODORE PERRY.

attacked unsuccessfully by Commodore Conner. In approaching the town the vessel opened a fire upon it, and sent a boat on shore containing two officers and a few men, with a demand for an unconditional surrender of the place in thirty minutes. The terrified authorities instantly acceded; and thus the town which had so long resisted the American Gulf forces, was taken without bloodshed by a steamer of three guns. On the following morning, at 2 o'clock, the

Scourge appeared before the town of Tlacotalpam, where a similar summons was followed by similar success. For these operations Lieutenant Hunter was dismissed from the squadron, for having disobeyed orders in attacking the town, when he was instructed merely to blockade it.

After remaining about two weeks at Vera Cruz, General Scott commenced his march for the Mexican capital. On the 14th of April, General Twiggs, with the van of the army, reached the mountain pass of Cerro Gordo, where he was soon afterwards joined by the main body. Here, among the high hills commanding the road, were posted ten thousand Mexican troops, in strong redoubts, com



BATTLE OF CERRO GORDO.

manded by President Santa Anna. This officer, after the battle of Buena Vista, had retired to the capital; and, by extraordinary exertions, had succeeded in raising another army, with which he hoped to retrieve his former losses, and rid his country of its enemies. With a promptitude that does him honour, he threw himself in the way of greatest danger; and, instead of again marching against General Taylor, then in command of but a handful of raw volunteers, he hurried forward to oppose the victorious career of the conqueror of Vera Cruz. Seizing the strong gorge of Cerro Gordo, he fortified it in such a manner that, in approaching, an assailing party would be obliged to march along the distance of a mile in full range of his batteries. On one flank General La Vega was posted with a large force, and on the other several garrisons of small forts.

On the afternoon of the 17th General Scott commenced a careful reconnoissance of the enemy's position. Before entering the ridge of cliffs known as the Cerro Gordo, the road crosses the bed of a once large stream known as the Plan del Rio. On the right was a high cliff covered with forts and batteries, and similar fortifications forming a strong chain of defence. A front attack would have led to a total annihilation of the American forces, and upon this direction of assault Santa Anna had evidently calculated. But on the evening

of the 17th General Scott opened a new road through the chaparral to the right, so as to escape the fire in front, and turn the Mexican left flank. As General Twiggs's division then became greatly exposed, Colonel Harney was sent against a fort on the steep ascent in front; and, under a heavy fire of grape and musketry, carried it with the rifles and a small detachment of infantry and artillery. The two armies were now in view of each other; but no further operations took place during the night, except the movement of Twiggs's division to secure a position favorable for opening the attack on the following day.

Early on the 18th Twiggs was ordered forward from the captured position against Santa Anna's main fort, while at the same time General Pillow assaulted the enemy's right, where La Vega was posted; and Generals Shields and Worth seized upon the Jalapa road, so as to cut off all retreat. The van of Twiggs's division, under the intrepid Harney, moved up the steep ascent, although exposed to sweeping fires of cannon and musketry, and notwithstanding their severe loss, paused not until they had gained the works and leaped among the enemy. The ensuing struggle was but short, and the Mexicans were soon flying in all directions to gain the main road. They here experienced their greatest loss; and one of their generals, Vasquez, was killed. During this time General Worth had been using great efforts to reach a fort in Santa Anna's rear, which was defended by General Pinzon, a mulatto officer of considerable ability and courage. This he accomplished soon after the victory of Twiggs's division, so that on being summoned to surrender, the garrison thought it most prudent to comply. These successes were, however, dampened by the repulse of General Pillow from the batteries commanded by La Vega. A renewal of the attack was attended by the same result, but the garrisons finally surrendered on ascertaining the fate of Santa Anna's position. On the Jalapa road, General Shields, while gallantly seconding the efforts of the main army, was dangerously wounded by a musket ball through the lungs, and carried senseless from the field. The command of his troops devolved on Colonel Baker, who pursued the enemy until late in the afternoon. Their loss during the flight was greater than while the battle lasted.

In this action the force of the Americans was about eight thousand men. The loss in killed and wounded was between four and five hundred, that of the Mexicans being nearly the same. More



COLONEL BAKER.

than three thousand prisoners were taken, together with Generals Pinzon, Jarrero, La Vega, Obando, and Noriega, with an immense quantity of field batteries, heavy ordnance, small arms and accoutrements. The private baggage and money chest of Santa Anna, containing about twenty thousand dollars in specie, were also captured. Santa Anna himself, with Ampudia and Canalizo, escaped by a private pass, and gained the Jalapa road in rear of the Americans.

Determined to render the rout of the enemy as complete as possible, General Scott pushed on his forces in haste along the Jalapa road. On the following day Twiggs entered Jalapa without opposition; and on the 21st the town and strong castle of Perote were taken by General Worth. Three weeks after, [May 15,] that active officer took possession of Puebla, which became for a while the head-quarters of the American army.

On the 18th of April, Commodore Perry entered the harbour of Tuspan with a portion of his fleet, attacked the town, and forced it to surrender, with a loss on his part of seventeen killed and wounded.

Santa Anna, after his defeat at Cerro Gordo, proceeded to the capital, which he reached on the 17th of May. He immediately collected into one the scattered fragments of the various armies dispersed throughout the country, and began an elaborate system of defence. Stirring appeals were addressed to the patriotism of the people, calling for men, money, and stores; the aid of religious sentiment was invoked, and every means taken to rouse the country for one more great effort. The strong pass of the Rio Frio, considered one of the most dangerous in Mexico for an assailing army, was occupied by a considerable force, who erected there some works. About this period, also, the formidable guerilla force scattered among the mountains and defiles, were authorized to commence their systematic operations against the Americans. A guerilla party was composed of lancers, rancheros, and highwaymen, mounted on horseback, and attacking small companies or trains as opportunity offered. The only code of war acknowledged by these guerillas was their own will; so that the introduction of this system gave a peculiarly ferocious aspect to many of the scenes of 1847-8. At different times a number of these outlaws attacked persons upon the road from Monterey and Vera Cruz to the capital, and frequently butchered them in a shocking manner. The Americans were not slow in retaliating. In a rancho near Seralvo a number of volunteers hung about forty Mexicans, and then secretly decamped. A young man named Oglesby having been murdered in returning from Camargo, a party of Texans pursued the murderers, overtook them, and put all to the sword. The most strenuous efforts were made by the authorities of both nations to prevent such horrible occurrences; but the evil continued, with but little interruption, until the close of the war.

On the 8th of June, a party numbering one hundred and fifty volunteers and citizens, under Captain Bainbridge, left Puebla for Vera Cruz. On approaching the Cerro Gordo, some of the officers were fired upon, and the party were soon after informed that several thousand Mexicans were in the pass. Continuing to advance, they ascertained that a detachment of the enemy were barricading the bridge; and although evening had already fallen, and they were excessively fatigued, yet a guard was posted below the bridge, in order to prevent surprise. On the following morning the bridge was passed without opposition; but when an officer and private soldier returned to bring over the wagons, the whole train was fired upon by about twenty-five Mexicans, by which four men were killed, and a wagon

taken. About the same time a body of lancers appeared on the opposite side, but rode away on perceiving that the captain was preparing to receive them. The little company then pursued its way undisturbed until it arrived at the camp of Colonel McIntosh, which was posted upon the road.



THIS officer, like Captain Bainbridge, had been attacked by a large force of the enemy, and was now waiting for reinforcements. The attack had lasted all night, and was successfully met only by the exertions of Captain Duperu's dragoons. After resting a day, Bainbridge again set out for Vera Cruz, which he reached in safety; but Captain Duperu, having a long return train to guard, which was threatened by a large body of lancers, halted at Santa Fé. Here he was charged by a superior force,

which he repulsed with but little loss to himself, although a few of the wagons were cut off, and their drivers captured. Soon after, he reached Vera Cruz in safety, having lost, in all, three killed and three wounded.

On the same day that the party under Captain Bainbridge left Colonel McIntosh's camp, General Cadwalader reached it with eight hundred men and two howitzers. On ascertaining that the train had been attacked, he marched for the National Bridge, where he soon came into action with a large Mexican force strongly posted behind ridges and chaparral. During the battle, some volunteers under Lieutenant Blakely charged and swept some barricades which had been thrown up by the enemy, while, at the same time, the heights on the right and left were also carried. General Cadwalader then crossed the bridge, but was annoyed during a great part of his march by a flank and rear fire from several parties of guerillas. His loss was fifteen killed, and from thirty to forty wounded; that of the enemy was about one hundred. During these attempts of the guerillas, the Americans lost no less than thirty wagons, two hundred pack mules, and several thousand dollars in specie.

It has already been mentioned, that soon after the battle of Cerro Gordo the Mexicans detached a military force to take possession of the Rio Frio pass, and fortify against the advance of the Americans. Why this was not done has yet to be explained; but the neglect was

certainly an egregious error on the part of Mexico. The gorge could have sustained a few courageous men against the efforts of an entire army; and until the news of its having been passed by General Scott reached the United States, no little anxiety was felt in that country for the result. But so strangely negligent were the Mexicans, that even the works thrown up there were abandoned at the approach of the American forces.

On the 4th of August General Scott's army commenced its march for the Mexican capital, moving by detachments. Owing to the prevalence of heavy rains, which rendered the roads almost impassable, the troops were unable to reach Ayotla before the 15th. About four miles in advance of this place was the strong fortification of El Penon, which mounted fifty-two pieces of cannon, was munitioned and garrisoned in the most careful manner, and completely commanded the road. A day was spent in reconnoitering this work, when the American commander resolved on avoiding it, by opening an old abandoned road leading to the southward around Lake Chalco towards the capital. This was cut up by ravines, lava beds, and rocks, to such an extent that in the rainy season it was regarded as impassable even for travellers; yet around it the army marched with their baggage, artillery, and stores, and reached San Augustin on the 17th, after having dispersed a body of lancers on the way. On the afternoon of the following day General Worth's column was ordered towards San Antonio, and a company of engineers escorted by Captain Thornton began a careful reconnoissance of that place. While this was going on, the garrison fired from a masked battery, killing the captain and wounding one of the guides. The party were then withdrawn, while Colonel Duncan's battery with some sappers and miners moved down the road to a position which would enable them to act in any direction in case of emergency. On the American left was placed Colonel Smith's light battalion, for the purpose of watching the enemy's flank. Colonels Clark and Garland occupied other parts of the field. All these troops were without shelter, although a drenching rain continued to fall all night. A portion of the first brigade, under General Worth, was stationed at a neighbouring hacienda, which, during the night, was exposed to the fire of the San Antonio batteries. Before morning the rain fell in such quantities that many of the companies were obliged to rise and remain standing until daylight.

The Mexican posts around San Augustin presented a series of



GENERAL TWIGGS.

fortifications of great natural strength, carefully erected, and provided with every thing necessary to a successful resistance. Around it, in every direction, was an irregular valley, broken by rocks and gullies, and having the whole surface jagged with sharp points of lava. Among the rocks to the west was the fortress of Contreras, containing several thousand men, and mounting twenty-two pieces of cannon. North of San Augustin were the still stronger works of Churubusco, and at short distances, those of San Angel and San Pallo, all filled with large garrisons and bristling with cannon and musketry. The city wall was one huge fortification.

On the 19th, Captain Lee, with Lieutenants Beauregard and Tower, continued the previous day's reconnoissance of the hostile lines. While this was going on, General Pillow, accompanied by the forces of Lieutenants Smith and Callender, was ordered toward Contreras. He advanced, opening the road step by step, until he reached an elevated position, from which the enemy's works were in view. He was soon joined by the advance under General Twigg.



GENERAL PIERCE.

which moved forward, planting their batteries and driving in the enemy's pickets. General Smith's brigade then proceeded to the left, and Colonel Riley's to the right, dragging their cannon with great difficulty over a surface apparently impassable to footmen. After the Americans had planted a howitzer battery under the care of Captain Magruder, they were fired upon by the enemy, who wounded Lieutenant Johnstone mortally, and Callender severely. So heavy was this fire, that the American batteries were soon afterwards withdrawn. But at this time General Smith engaged the Mexican infantry outside the fort; and at the same moment, the artillery gained a favourable position, and recommenced firing. On both sides, the cannonading became general, but that of the enemy at length obliged the battery of Captain Magruder to withdraw. General Pierce, with his brigade, then advanced to support Smith



GENERAL SHIELDS.

and Cadwalader to support Colonel Riley. On observing these movements, a large body of lancers advanced from Churubusco, and threatened Cadwalader's position; but by order of General Pillow, Colonel Morgan, with the fifteenth infantry, advanced to Cadwalader's support; and General Scott arriving about the same time, detached the volunteers of General Shields for the same purpose. The left flank were now exposed to a heavy fire of the enemy, the troops rapidly pursuing a route evidently marked for them by the wily foe. To divert the attention of the enemy, a feint attack was conducted against Contreras, while General Smith, with some artillery and rifles, fell back to Ensaldo, a village bordered on one side by a deep ravine, and on the other by a small stream of water. Between these extended a high stone wall. Narrow lanes intersected each other in various directions, cutting up the village in small portions, which are covered with flowers, shrubbery, and fruit trees.



CHARGE OF THE PALMETTOS AT CHERUBUSOO

W. B. WOODS, SC.

C. C. Dyer

Here the American soldiers were posted, secure in a great measure from the fire or observation of the enemy.

General Smith now resolved to attack the large cavalry force which had been hovering near the American troops all day. He was to be assisted by Riley and Cadwalader. But before the preliminary arrangements could be completed, night set in, rainy as before, so that the Mexican troops could not be seen. The attempt was abandoned, Cadwalader resumed his position at the edge of the village, and Riley's brigade was formed inside, together with the rifles and infantry. In these positions they passed the night, destitute of both fires and shelter, although exposed to a drenching rain. The other divisions of the army, including even General Scott and the higher officers, were equally destitute of shelter.

During the night, General Smith formed a plan for capturing Contreras with the bayonet, and the necessary orders or instructions were communicated to his command about midnight. At three o'clock next morning, the general's division began its march. Immediately after, General Shields arrived with his volunteers, but generously declined assuming the command. His troops then moved into Enseldo, so as to prevent the enemy occupying it in case of their being defeated. The storming party of Smith's brigade was led by Colonel Riley, supported by Generals Cadwalader and Smith. The intrepid colonel marched along the bed of the ravine, until he had arrived opposite the fort, when he ascended the bank, but was still protected from the opposing batteries by an elevation of ground. Mounting this, he was within full sweep of the Mexican artillerists, who immediately opened. But calling to his men to follow, and breasting the withering storm that fell on all sides, Riley rushed down the slope, followed by his brigade, and was soon upon the works. Cadwalader hurried to support him, and General Smith ordered a brigade to face to the left, and advance in line to attack the enemy's force in flank. The struggle was soon decided. The enemy fled on all sides, and were attacked in their flight, and forced to disperse in different directions. While hurrying toward the village of Enseldo, they were fired upon by Shields's command which had stealthily left the village and concealed itself near the line of retreat. The Americans commenced a rapid pursuit, which was continued with great effect, until the Mexican main body had succeeded in passing through a narrow defile, when one of their officers drew up a number of lancers at the pass, and surrendered.



GENERAL PILLOW.

If, as is probable, this movement was designed to occupy the time of the pursuers until the fugitives could take refuge in Churubusco, it must be regarded as evincing as much sagacity as any measure adopted by the enemy during the war.

The fruits of this victory were fifteen hundred prisoners, twenty-two pieces of artillery, large quantities of ammunition and military stores, with a number of pack-mules. Among the prisoners were several officers of high rank. One of the most pleasing circumstances connected with the action, was the recapture of the two guns taken from General Taylor at Buena Vista.

While the pursuit was going on, General Scott arrived at Contreras, and leaving a small garrison at that place, with instructions concerning the wounded and prisoners, he hurried on the main portion of the army toward the posts of San Angel and San Pallo.

The troops of Generals Twiggs, Shields, and Pillow, were all engaged in this service. They soon overtook the rear of the Mexican forces, with which a sort of running fight took place until it had taken shelter in the fortress of Churubusco, where a garrison still larger than that of Contreras was preparing for one more struggle.

Churubusco is a small village, surrounded, at that time, by a system of stone walls, surmounted by a well-defended hacienda, which was in like manner overtopped by a church. The walls, hacienda, and church, were lined with sharp-shooters, and provided with pieces of heavy cannon. About four hundred yards from the village a small stream was crossed by a bridge, the head of which, or *tête du pont*, forms a fortification so strong as to be considered by the Mexicans impregnable. As these works completely cross-fired the road, it was necessary to attack both at once. Accordingly, Twiggs was sent against Churubusco, Worth against the *tête du pont*, while Shields moved across the meadows in a direction parallel with the main (Acapulco) road, so as to cut off the enemy's retreat.

Worth moved from San Augustin about eight A. M., and after compelling the garrison of San Antonio to evacuate that place, he pushed rapidly for Churubusco. Twiggs's troops were already engaged at the main works, and as Worth's division moved toward the *tête du pont*, it received a galling fire from the Mexican guns at the walls and hacienda. At this time, vast bodies of the enemy were observed approaching from the city, while long columns of lancers and infantry were stationed at different points, for the purpose of annoying the assailants. The works at the bridge now opened their fire, filling the air with the reiterated shocks of cannon and musketry, the uproar of shouting thousands, and, at intervals, the deep groans of the dying. Worth now threw Colonel Garland's brigade to the right, where it entered some corn-fields, and soon dislodged the enemy from their concealed position in that quarter. At the same time, Clarke's brigade, with Duncan's battery, moved to other points on the road, from whence it moved between Garland's and the road and then rushing down upon the enemy's works, it mounted them, and cleared the artillery with the bayonet. So sudden and vigorous was this charge of the Americans, that instead of resisting, the Mexicans threw down their arms and fled precipitately to the capital. The captured cannon were instantly turned upon the garrison of Churubusco.

Ths position had, in the meanwhile, been vigorously assaulted by

Twiggs, with his whole division ; but so strong were the works, and so determined the efforts of the enemy, that after three hours' hard fighting, no impression had been made. During all this time, the walls were in one continuous blaze of artillery and musketry ; and so dense were the volumes of smoke, that both armies were often entirely hidden from view, and guided in firing only by the flash of the opposing batteries. But after Worth's victory had enabled him to direct his guns upon the church and hacienda, the vigour of the defence was sensibly diminished, and in half an hour the garrison gave way, and fled with precipitation toward the capital. They were pursued by Colonel Harney's dragoons to within a few yards of the capital. Worth and Twiggs then drew up their troops near the hacienda, to await orders from the general-in-chief. He soon arrived on the ground, and after complimenting the soldiers on their success, ordered further pursuit to be suspended for the night. Exclusive of the garrison of Contreras, the enemy lost, on this memorable day, twelve hundred prisoners, fifteen hundred killed or wounded, including many able officers—with cannon, equipments, small arms, and ammunition in proportion. Their whole army had been broken up, and the capital laid open to the mercy of the invaders. The whole loss of the Americans in killed, wounded and missing, was ten hundred and fifty-three. In this celebrated engagement the splendid "Palmetto Regiment," of South Carolina, suffered most severely, and their gallant commander, Col. Butler, fell, covered with wounds and with glory.

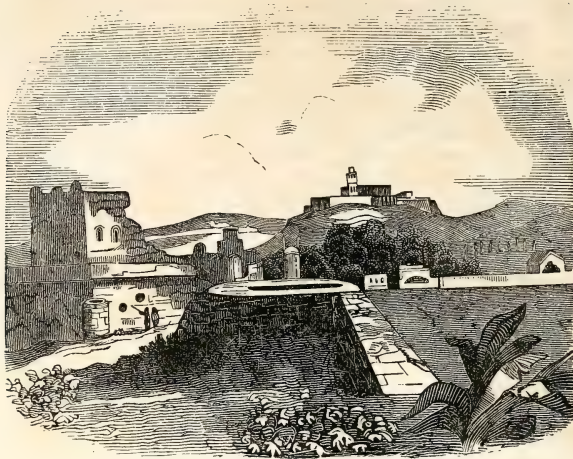
At this time, such was the terror and confusion among all classes within the city, that General Scott could probably have entered it without much additional loss. But while writing a summons for its surrender, he was waited upon by a commission proposing a truce. Rejecting the terms, he despatched his contemplated note to Santa Anna, omitting the summons. Nothing further took place until the following day, when commissioners were appointed by both commanders, who, on the 23d, signed an armistice, preparatory to a permanent peace, and exchanged ratifications on the 24th. Negotiations were immediately opened for the conclusion of a permanent peace.

In the fortress of Churubusco, Sergeant Riley, with seventy others, who had deserted from the army, either before the war or at different periods of its progress, had been captured, while fighting bravely against their former comrades. These were tried by court-martia

during the armistice, and a number of them having been found guilty of treason, were hung in the presence of both armies. The remainder, in consequence of having deserted before the opening of the war, had their punishment remitted to branding, public whipping, and imprisonment until the army should leave Mexico.

During the armistice, Mr. Trist, the commissioner selected by President Polk to negotiate a peace, proposed to the Mexican authorities that the disputed territory between the Nueces and Rio Grande, together with New Mexico and Upper California, should be yielded to the United States for the sum of fifteen millions of dollars. This was refused by the Mexican commissioners, who declined to yield any portion of their territory west of the Nueces. Mr. Trist then offered his *ultimatum* or final project on the subject of boundaries, and the negotiators adjourned to re-assemble on the 6th of September. No further communication took place between the armies until that day, when General Scott addressed a note to Santa Anna, accusing him of violating the terms of the armistice, by fortifying different works in the city, and threatening a resumption of hostilities in forty-eight hours, unless satisfactory explanation could be given. To this the Mexican general replied by charging the Americans with having obstructed the intercourse between the capital and surrounding country, and committed opprobrious deeds in the more interior towns and villages—at the same time intimating that General Scott might resort to hostilities whenever he wished. The armistice was at an end.

The 7th was occupied by the American general in reconnoitering the extended line of works outside the city. The southern approaches to the capital were defended by works of astonishing strength, erected upon the wall and gates, and an intricate labyrinth of dikes, canals, ravines, ditches, and causeways, outside of the gates. Further to the west, was the hill of Chapultepec, surmounted by a strong castle and tower, and connected by heavy masonry works with the Casa Mata and founderies of Molino del Rey. The reconnoissance convinced General Scott that an attempt upon the city in this quarter would be attended with immense loss of life, and probably total failure. He therefore resolved to make a diversion to the gates on the south-west and west, and enter the city in that quarter. The first step in this new movement was to carry Chapultepec and Molino del Rey; and a necessary requisite to final success was to deceive the enemy by a feint upon the southern gates, by which they might still be induced



MOLINO DEL REY—CHAPULTEPEC IN THE DISTANCE

to retain the greater part of their cannon and other munitions in that quarter until the western defences were carried.

Early on the 8th, General Worth was detached against the Molino del Rey, with the brigade of Cadwalader in reserve. It was found necessary to isolate the works around Casa Mata from those of Chapultepec, an undertaking of much difficulty and hazard. At day-break, the army in two columns attacked simultaneously the Molino and Casa Mata. The troops rushed forward upon the former place, unshaken by the glare of batteries vomiting forth showers of grape and canister, until they had reached the works and driven back the artillerists with the bayonet. The field-battery was captured, and its guns trailed upon the retiring masses. A moment after, they rallied, and, supported by numbers of infantry, rushed toward the guns, pouring in a volley of musketry that struck down more than one-half of the victors. But after a vigorous struggle, they were driven out and pursued toward Chapultepec.

Meanwhile, the 2d brigade, under Colonel McIntosh, supported by Duncan's battery, moved with equal steadiness against the Casa



STORMING OF MOLINO DEL REY.

Mata. The enemy's fire was so destructive, that although the troops moved under partial shelter, a large proportion of officers, with numbers of assistants and soldiers, were killed or wounded. But on reaching the slope of the parapet commanding the citadel, it was discovered that the Casa Mata, instead of being a simple field-work, as was hitherto supposed, was a strong Spanish fortress, surrounded by bastioned intrenchments and impassable ditches. Dismayed by this discovery, and confused by the loss of officers, the assailants fell into confusion, halted, and then fell back toward Colonel Duncan's position. At this critical moment, a large cavalry and infantry force assaulted the American left, but were driven back by the artillery, followed by a vigorous charge of Major Sumner's dragoons. One-third of the latter were unhorsed by the fire of Casa Mata. Cadwalader's brigade now advanced to Worth's support, and the fortress was carried with the bayonet. In accordance with instructions, General Worth destroyed the walls, with most of the arms and ammunition, blew up the works, and returned to his head-quarters at Tacubaya.

In this action, the most destructive to the Americans which they had yet experienced, their force was rather more than three thousand

two hundred men. Of these, they lost seven hundred and eighty nine, including fifty-eight officers. The total force of the garrison was about fourteen thousand, and their loss, exclusive of deserters, three thousand.

In order to carry out his plan of deceiving the enemy, General Scott placed Twiggs, with Riley's brigade, and Taylor's and Step-toe's batteries, at the southern gates, with orders to bombard that quarter, as though in preparation for a general attack. The 9th, 10th and 11th, were occupied in making careful reconnoissances of the works on Chapultepec hill, a service conducted by the able engineers Stephens, Beauregard, Lee, and Tower. On the afternoon of the 11th, the divisions of Twiggs, Pillow, and Quitman were concentrated in view of the southern gates; but during the night, the latter two generals, with their troops, were silently moved to Tacubaya, preparatory to the contemplated attack upon Chapultepec. Twiggs still remained in his former position. Early on the morning of the 12th, the American batteries opened upon the castle, while the divisions of Pillow and Quitman were ordered to organize parties for the assault. The bombardment continued all day, the American guns being worked with such precision that soon the massive walls of Chapultepec began to crumble, while the rocks around were split into thousands of pieces by the incessant storm of heavy shot. At the same time, the batteries from the castle were in full blast, imparting to the hill the appearance of a volcano in violent action. The scene attending this day's bombardment was grand and sublime, beyond even that of Vera Cruz.

On the morning of the 13th, sufficient impression had been made upon the walls to authorize the commencement of the attack. It was conducted in two columns, the first from Pillow's division, under Colonel Ransom, the second from that of Quitman, under Major Twiggs and Captain Casey. The castle was commanded by General Bravo, one of the bravest officers in the Mexican service. The cannonading of Chapultepec was continued without intermission, from dawn until 8 A. M., when its cessation was the signal for the movement of the storming parties. Pillow's division marched through a grove filled with sharp-shooters, clearing it as they advanced, and halting at the base of the hill. The storming party were in advance with fixed bayonets and empty muskets. At this crisis, Pillow was struck to the ground with a severe wound, and the command devolved on General Cadwalader. Ransom rushed forward into the



COLONEL RANSOM.

appalling shower of death hurled down by the castle, calling on his men to follow. They followed him with loud cheers ; but in a few moments he fell dead, shot through the brain, and the command fell upon Major Seymour. Undismayed by the death of their leader, and crowds falling on all sides, the soldiers clambered up the steep ascent, shouting the name of Ransom, and driving each other onward. A small battery outside the castle was speedily taken, and the assailants sprang forward through showers of fire, to the ditch. During all this time, the American batteries were throwing shells and shot over the storming party into the fortress, so as to prevent the arrival of reinforcements from the city. The enemy made several unsuccessful attempts to fire the mines ; and soon after, the scaling-ladders of the Americans were flung up, and the troops poured in one united stream upon the walls. Many Americans, during the first onset, were hurled to the ground, and then ensued the terrible conflict with the bayonet. It was short and decisive ; the garrison fled down the hill in heavy masses, their flag was torn from its staff by Major Seymour, and the reiterated shouts of the



MAJOR (NOW COLONEL) SEYMOUR

Americans announced that Chapultepec had been gained. Along with this party, Quitman's troops, led by the *Leroi*. Casey, had entered. These troops had encountered obstacles equal at least to those of their comrades, being obliged to fight along the whole distance of a causeway, cut up with ditches and batteries, and manned by great numbers of the enemy. But through obstacles apparently sufficient to appal the stoutest heart, Quitman cheered on his hardy followers, ably supported by General Smith and the rifles. Twiggs and Casey both fell mortally wounded. The troops then leaped the causeway, and crossed the adjacent meadows, amid a tremendous fire of musketry and artillery, and, notwithstanding heavy losses, reached the fort simultaneously with Seymour's party. A melancholy slaughter of the garrison took place, few of whom asked or received quarter. About one hundred and seventy-five were taken prisoners. The last obstacle to the final assault upon the capital had been removed.

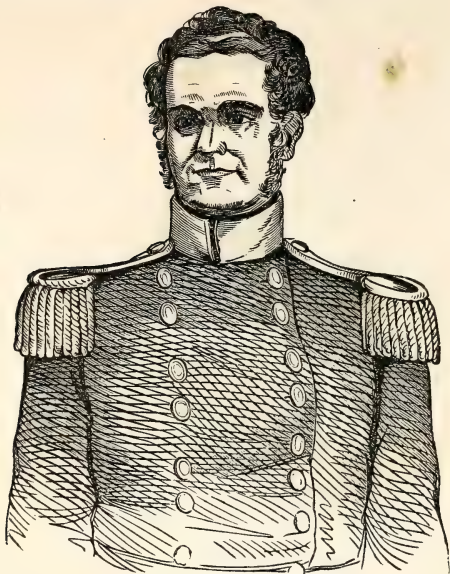
Two great roads lead from Chapultepec to the western entrances of Mexico—the San Cosme causeway, terminating in the San Cosme



GENERAL PERSIFOR F. SMITH.

gate; and the Belen causeway, in the Belen gate. Immediately after the reduction of the castle, General Scott mounted to its top, and ordered Worth, with his two brigades, assisted by Cadwalader's, to advance along the San Cosme road, storm the gate, and enter the city; while General Quitman conducted a feint upon the Belen entrance. Both these causeways were defended by batteries posted at well-chosen distances, and completely sweeping the road. Besides these, sharp-shooters were posted at small intervals, numerous ditches were cut across the road, at right angles with an aqueduct, which extended along its whole course, and every other obstacle thrown in the Americans' path.

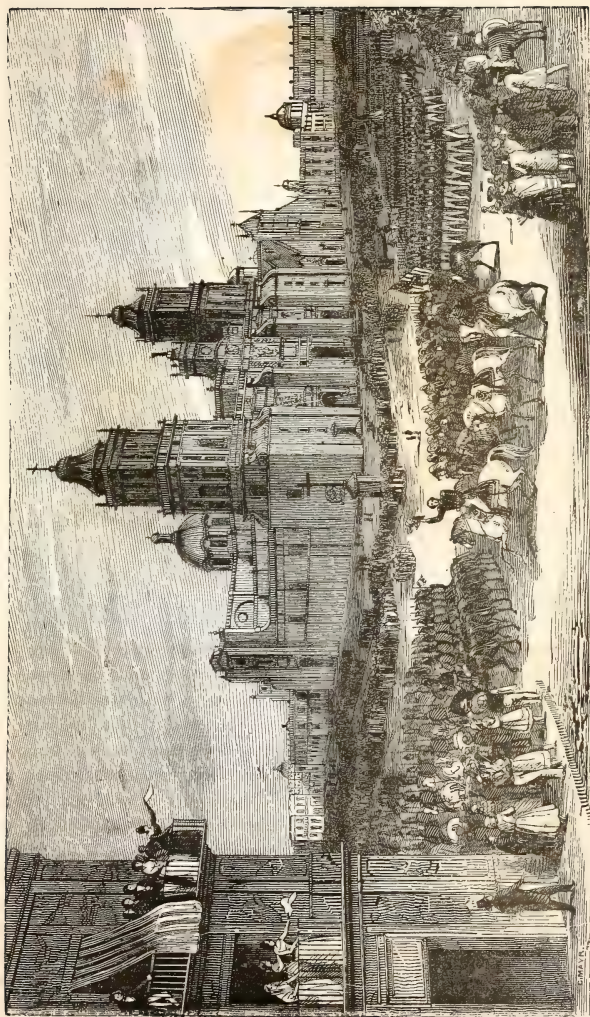
Immediately after the capture of the castle, Worth, with but one brigade, had begun his march towards the San Cosme gate, on approaching which he found a large body of Mexicans posted behind ditches and in houses. They at once opened a heavy fire of musketry. Cadwalader's brigade having now arrived, his howitzers



GENERAL WORTH.

were thrown forward, together with a party of skirmishers and pioneers, who speedily opened a way into the neighbouring buildings, driving out or capturing the enemy, and advancing under cover towards the city. In this manner, though exposed to tremendous fires, the division fought its way up to the gate, where, after a most obstinate struggle, the enemy's main fort was carried, and the assailants entered the city. At eight, P. M., Worth halted, posted sentinels, and ordered his men into quarters, determining to renew the assault on the morrow.

Meanwhile Quitman had been pressing along the Belen causeway with such ardour as to convert his feint attack into a real one. During this advance he was exposed to one of the most tremendous fires ever sustained by an American army; but, notwithstanding the reiterated commands of the general-in-chief to return, his troops poured on, springing from arch to arch between the enemy's volleys, and cap



ENTRANCE OF THE AMERICAN ARMY INTO THE CAPITAL OF MEXICO.

turing one battery after another until they arrived at the Belen gate. At this formidable post a sanguinary conflict took place, in which the garrison were defeated, and the Americans rushed with loud shouts into the city. But directly in their front glared another battery flanked on each side by cross-fires, which soon compelled the assailants to take refuge in the adjacent houses. Here the fight raged with fearful violence until night, when the Americans were ordered under shelter, and slept upon their arms. Many valuable lives, including those of Captain Drum and Lieutenant Benjamin, were lost during this assault.

Having thus secured a foothold within the capital, General Scott determined to carry it by storm on the following morning. But at four o'clock, A. M., of the 14th, he was waited upon by a deputation from the authorities, requesting him to sign a capitulation in favour of the citizens, churches, and municipality. The general replied that he would agree upon no such terms; but that the city being at his mercy, he possessed and would exercise the right of dictating what, in his judgment, would be considered best. It was soon discovered that Santa Anna and the army had evacuated the city. The American commander then declared that he would levy a contribution upon the citizens for the expenses of the army, but that the personal rights of all should be religiously observed. Orders were then issued to General Quitman to advance towards the Grand Plaza, and to General Worth to move as far as the Alameda, a green park some distance from the San Cosme gate. These movements were executed with alacrity. About eight o'clock, General Scott, with a brilliant staff, entered the city, in full uniform and accompanied by the remainder of the army. His arrival at the Grand Plaza was hailed by bursts of national music and the reiterated cheers of the soldiers, in which many of the Mexicans are said to have joined.

Scarcely had the excitement of this scene subsided, and the Americans begun to disperse, when a scattering fire was opened upon the army by several thousand convicts and others, many of whom had been turned from prison by the flying government for this very purpose. Vigorous efforts were immediately made by General Scott and the authorities for the suppression of these outrages; but this was not accomplished until many valuable lives had been lost, and parties despatched in all directions to blow up all houses from which shots would be fired.

Thus was the famed capital of the Montezumas taken by a handful

of men, so small as to startle him who attempts comparison with the enemy. The history of modern days has rarely narrated feats equal to those of this little army and their intrepid general. The number that marched from Puebla on the 7th of August is stated by the commander at ten thousand seven hundred and thirty-eight rank and file. At Contreras and Churubusco, only eight thousand five hundred were engaged with thirty thousand; at Molino del Rey, thirty-two hundred and fifty were in the battle; while Chapultepec and the capital were taken by less than six thousand. The total loss in these battles was two thousand seven hundred and three, of whom three hundred and eighty-three were officers. "This small force," says the commander, in his official despatch to government, "has beaten on the same occasions, in view of the capital, the whole Mexican army of (at the beginning) thirty odd thousand men—posted always in chosen positions, behind intrenchments, or more formidable defences of nature and art; killed or wounded of that number more than seven thousand officers and men; taken three thousand seven hundred and thirty prisoners, one-seventh officers, including thirteen generals, of whom three had been presidents of this republic; captured more than twenty colours and standards, seventy-five pieces of ordnance, besides fifty-seven wall pieces, twenty thousand small arms, an immense quantity of shot, shells, powder, &c.

"Of that enemy once so formidable in numbers, appointments, artillery, &c., twenty odd thousand men have disbanded themselves in despair, leaving, as is known, not more than three fragments,—the largest about two thousand five hundred,—now wandering in different directions, without magazines or a military chest, and living at free quarters upon their own people."

But the capture of the capital was not the actual close of the war. The Mexicans still persisted with astonishing fortitude in bearing up against their loss, and using every means to drive out the invaders. On the 13th of September, the garrison of Puebla, numbering about four hundred men, under Colonel Childs, were attacked by a large force of armed citizens, rancheros, and soldiers; and a bombardment was sustained until the 22d, when Santa Anna arrived with large reinforcements from the capital. Great preparations were then made for assaulting the garrison, which had retired to the posts of San Jose, Loreto, and Guadalupe. On the 25th, Childs was summoned to surrender, but refused; upon which the Mexican batteries were opened with increased violence upon San Jose, which now



COLONEL CHILDS.

became the principal point of attack. This severe cannonade was heroically sustained by the garrison, who, notwithstanding the smallness of their number, worked incessantly both in defending and strengthening their position. "A shower of bullets," writes the colonel, "was constantly poured from the streets, the balconies, the housetops and churches, upon their devoted heads. Never did troops endure more fatigue by watching night after night—nor exhibit more patience, spirit, or gallantry. Not a post of danger could present itself, but the gallant fellows were ready to fill it. Not a sentinel could be shot, but another was anxious and ready to take his place. Officers and soldiers vied with each other to be honoured martyrs in their country's cause."

On the 30th, Santa Anna received information that General Lane, having marched from Vera Cruz with a considerable force, was ad

vancing rapidly to the relief of the garrison. He therefore marched with three thousand men to meet him. Taking advantage of this reduction of the besiegers' numbers, Colonel Childs resolved on a sortie from the works against some houses and barricades, whose fire had been extremely annoying. This was conducted by Captain Small and Lieutenant Morgan, who drove away the enemy with great loss, killing seventeen, and burning one hundred and fifty cotton bales, of which the work was composed. The bombardment continued until the 10th of October, when General Lane arrived with reinforcements, and the enemy retired. The siege had lasted forty days.

General Lane had encountered the Mexican forces on the road from Vera Cruz. At the hacienda of Santa Anna he dispersed a party of guerillas, and another at the Paso de Ovejas. On approaching the town of Huamantla, he learned that a large force was there collected, with six pieces of artillery. At one o'clock the advance came in sight of the town, and was halted; while Captain Walker, with his mounted men, were ordered to gallop forward and enter, should his force be sufficient. He found a party of the Mexicans drawn up in the plaza, with several pieces of cannon. Charging vigorously, he drove off the enemy after a severe struggle, and captured the pieces. In the subsequent pursuit, Major Iturbide, son of the Mexican emperor, was captured. Unfortunately, the Americans now dismounted, and scattered themselves around the square. Here they were unexpectedly charged by a body of lancers, and saved from defeat only by the skilful manœuvring of their captain. Immediately after, the Americans entered the convent yard, where another action ensued, during which the gallant Walker was mortally wounded. When his death was announced, the soldiers burst into tears, and charged the lancers with such fury as to drive them from the ground. Soon after, the American main body arrived, and completed the rout of the Mexicans. The latter lost one hundred and fifty men; the Americans thirteen killed, eleven wounded.

Lane remained at Puebla until the 18th of October, when he was informed that a body of the enemy, under General Rea, was at Atlixco, thirty miles distant. On the following morning, at eleven o'clock, he set out for that place; and, after a forced march of five hours' duration, came in sight of the enemy's advance at Santa Isabella. The cavalry were thrown forward to charge, when the Mexicans fell back to a small hill, and fought with great resolution until

the arrival of the American infantry, when they broke and fled. A running fight over several miles ensued, until the Mexican main army was observed posted on a side hill, behind rows of chaparral fences. The cavalry again charged, and a close conflict ensued, which was again terminated by the arrival of the American infantry and artillery. The retreating mass was pursued to the city, when, night having arrived, Lane halted his troops, and prepared for a bombardment. This was conducted by the bright light of a full moon for about an hour, with great destruction of life and property to the town. It was then surrendered by the city council. The American loss was one killed, one wounded; that of the enemy more than five hundred. After destroying or appropriating such arms and ammunition as could be found, Lane returned on the following day to Puebla.

On the 15th of October, Captain Lavalette, with three vessels entered the port of Guymas, and summoned the town to surrender. This being refused, a bombardment was commenced on the 20th, which, after continuing more than an hour, with much loss of property, brought the inhabitants to terms. Lavalette then issued a proclamation claiming the post and town for the United States, and establishing over it a territorial government. The port of Mazatlan was captured by another portion of the squadron about the same time. Not long after, General Lane captured the town of Matamora. At this period of the war the various guerilla bands had become exceedingly troublesome, frequently cutting off all communication between different portions of the army, and sometimes capturing portions of the specie and ammunition trains.

In November occurred the unfortunate difficulties between General Scott and his officers, which submitted the conduct of several to a military investigation, and caused the main command to devolve upon General Butler.

Previous to the recall of General Scott he had laid before the Mexican authorities [January, 1848] the basis of a treaty, by which he hoped to restore peace to the two countries. They appointed Lewis G. Cuevas, Bernardo Conto, and Miguel Atristain, commissioners, to confer with Mr. Trist, the American envoy, at Guadalupe Hidalgo. After a somewhat tedious negotiation, these gentlemen signed a treaty of "peace, friendship, limits, and settlement," between the United States of America and the Mexican republic. On the 10th of March it was passed, with some few alterations, by the

United States Senate, signed by President Polk, and transmitted through Mr. Sevier to the Mexican Congress, then assembled at Queretaro. That body agreed to the alterations on the 25th of May, and thus, after a duration of two years, the war, of which both nations were heartily tired, was terminated. The treaty acknowledges the Rio Grande as the boundary of Texas, secures to the Americans the fine harbour of San Francisco, with the gulf trade, together with the territories of New Mexico and Upper California, for the sum of fifteen millions of dollars. News of peace was received in the city of Mexico, and other places, with the ringing of bells, the firing of cannon, and other demonstrations of joy. The remainder of the month, with part of June, was occupied by the American commander in removing the troops and national stores from Mexico to the United States. Before the close of the latter month, the Mexican territory had been entirely evacuated by its former conquerors.



THE events of the Mexican war led the way to a political revolution at home. In relation to military affairs in Mexico, the course pursued by the administration, whether judicious or not, was severely criticised by some of their political adversaries.

The government was even said to be jealous of the rising popularity of those great leaders, Generals Taylor and Scott, and was accused of playing with the former the part of David in the case of Uriah, in depriving him of his forces, when Santa Anna was advancing upon him with twenty thousand men, and thus leaving him exposed to almost certain destruction. This accusation is too absurd to merit a serious refutation. The anxiety of the country for the safety of the brave old man and his little band of heroes was, however, intense; and, from day to day, the most melancholy tidings were expected. What, then, is the effect when the first intelligence of the glorious victory of Buena Vista arrives in the United States? The whole country is perfectly electrified. If the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, and the capture of Monterey, were sufficient to establish his reputation, what wonder that the people should now almost adore the man who, with means so slender, could accomplish results so wonderful! "No other general," it was repeated, "would have dared to fight the battle, and no other could have won it." General Taylor was firmly seated in the affections of the American people,

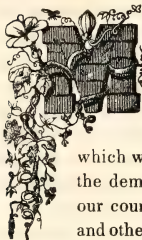
and enjoyed a popularity little, if at all inferior to that of General Jackson.



N the 7th of June, 1848, while the country was still ringing with the fame of Taylor's victories, a Whig National Convention was held at Philadelphia, to nominate candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency. The principal names were those of General Taylor, General Scott, and Henry Clay, of Kentucky. On the evening of the 6th, a Taylor meeting was held in Independence-square, and attended by nearly fifteen thousand people. Many of the delegates to the National Convention had already arrived, and were present at this immense gathering. The Convention met next morning, and, after a severe struggle, nominated General Taylor for the Presidency, and Millard Fillmore, of New York, for the Vice-Presidency. The nomination was a wise one, and was made at a fortunate moment. The superior availability of a successful military leader, even long after his most brilliant exploits, had been sufficiently proved in the election of General Jackson, and in that of General Harrison. In the present instance, the whigs were furnished with a military chief, and with a popular excitement ready-made to their hands. The democrats had held their National Convention on the 21st of May, at Baltimore, the result being the nomination of Lewis Cass, of Michigan, for the Presidency, and General W. O. Butler, of Kentucky, for the Vice-Presidency. In this convention two sets of delegates from two separate conventions in the State of New York claimed seats, and were both admitted. This displeased both parties, and they withdrew, leaving the important State of New York unrepresented. The friends of Mr. Van Buren in that State, claiming that the action of the convention was not binding upon them, assembled at Utica, and nominated him for the Presidency. This led to his renomination by the Free-Soil National Convention at Buffalo soon after, when his name was formally associated with that of Charles F. Adams, of Massachusetts.

But nothing could withstand the enthusiasm of the people for the heroic Taylor. It might have been said that it was uncertain whether the General was a whig or not, that the war was unpopular, and that Mr. Clay could not, without the rankest ingratitude, be deprived of the benefit of the powerful reaction in favour of whig principles—principles which he had long defended with so much firm-

ness and ability. Yet, if any of the whigs desired to retrace their steps, it was found to be too late. They could not allay the excitement which they had so easily originated. In this party struggle, however, the intemperate enthusiasm of some former political campaigns was not manifested. The election in November decided the contest in favour of the whigs. On the 14th of February, 1849, the votes of the electoral colleges were counted, when it appeared that the whole number was two hundred and ninety; of which one hundred and sixty-three were for Taylor and Fillmore, and one hundred and twenty-seven for Cass and Butler.



R. POLK'S message to the last Congress which convened under his administration, is a most elegant and masterly document. We quote from it the following interesting passage in relation to the Mexican war:

"One of the most important results of the war into which we were recently forced with a neighbouring nation, is the demonstration it has afforded of the military strength of our country. Before the late war with Mexico, European and other foreign powers entertained imperfect and erroneous views of our physical strength as a nation, and of our ability to prosecute war, and especially a war waged out of our own country. They saw that our standing army on the peace establishment did not exceed ten thousand men. Accustomed themselves to maintain in peace large standing armies for the protection of thrones against their own subjects, as well as against foreign enemies, they had not conceived that it was possible, without such an army, well disciplined, and of long service, to wage war successfully." Again he says: "Our citizen-soldiers are unlike those drawn from the population of any other country. They are composed indiscriminately of all professions and pursuits; of farmers, lawyers, physicians, merchants, manufacturers, mechanics, and labourers; and this, not only among the officers, but the private soldiers in the ranks. Our citizen-soldiers are unlike those of any other country in other respects. They are armed, and have been accustomed from their youth up to handle and use fire-arms; and a large proportion of them, especially in the western and newly-settled States, are expert marksmen. They are men who have a reputation to maintain at home by their good conduct in the field. They are intelligent, and there is an individuality of character which is found in the ranks of

no other army. In battle, each private man, as well as every officer, fights not only for his country, but for glory and distinction among his fellow-citizens when he shall return to civil life."



THE 30th Congress closed its session on the 4th of March. A new and important department, called the Home Department, had been created, assuming certain branches of business formerly belonging to the State and Treasury Departments, and thus greatly relieving the officers at the head of these departments. California, up to this time, had not been furnished with a provisional government. The Territory of Minnesota, formed from portions of Iowa and Wisconsin, claiming that it was entitled to be regarded as the Territory of Wisconsin, proceeded, after the admission of the latter to the Union, to elect a delegate (Hon. H. H. Sibley) to represent them in Congress. He was permitted to take his seat, and before the close of the session of 1848-9, a bill was passed establishing the territorial government of Minnesota, and defining the boundaries of the Territory. Hon. Alexander Ramsay was appointed Governor of the Territory, and the first assembly met in the fall of 1849. The principal settlements in Minnesota are St. Pauls St. Anthony, Stillwater, and Mendota. In 1850, the territory contained a population of 6,077, and an area of 83,000 square miles.

The Presidential term of James K. Polk expired on the 3d of March. Mr. Polk's private character was unexceptionable. Calumny never even attempted to tarnish his spotless reputation. Though somewhat reserved, his manners were plain and unsophisticated. Soon after his arrival at Nashville, he removed with his family to his new and elegant mansion at Grundy's Hill, in the very heart of that beautiful city. Here he employed himself in improving and embellishing his house and grounds, assisted by Mrs. Polk, upon whose exquisite taste in such matters he greatly relied. He was in the prime of life, had occupied various public stations, and had just retired from the highest office in the gift of his fellow-citizens—the highest office in the world. In June, the unexpected tidings of his death were spread through the country. While on his way from New Orleans to Nashville, in March, 1849, he was attacked with diarrhœa, from which, however, he shortly recovered. About the 1st of June, he had a slight attack of fever, produced by over-exertion in arranging the books of his library. This was soon

attended with diarrhœa, which with him had been a chronic disease for many years. For several days no danger was apprehended; but the disorder soon assumed a more threatening aspect, and on the 15th of June, in spite of the skill and vigilance of his physicians, terminated in death. In his last hours, he professed his faith in the gospel, and received the rite of baptism at the hands of Rev. Mr McFarren, of the Methodist denomination.



HATEVER may be the merit of this administration, it cannot be denied that it was conducted with great ability, and secured to the United States those territorial accessions whose value can hardly be overrated even by the wildest imagination. Who can tell the influence which the discovery of the golden regions of California must exert upon the prosperity of our republic, and, we might almost say, upon the destiny of the world itself? It will aid greatly in securing a solid basis for the currency of the country. The richest mines in the world, those of California and Australia, have, almost at the same time, come under the control of its two most powerful nations—a coincidence which serves to maintain a balance or equality of wealth and power between those nations, thus affording additional security for the peace and harmony of both. A brief description of the newly-acquired territories will, we trust, prove acceptable to our readers. An account of the discovery of California, and a sketch of its early history, have already been given in a former part of this work. [See p. 112.]

Upper or New California is bounded on the north by the 42d parallel of latitude, which divides it from Oregon; on the east, by the Sierra Anahuac and the Sierra de los Mimbres, continuations of the Rocky Mountains; on the south, by Old or Lower California and Sonora; and on the west, by the Pacific Ocean. Its extent from north to south is about 700 miles, and from east to west from 500 to 800 miles, its area being about 400,000 square miles. About 150 miles from the coast, and running nearly parallel with it, is the Sierra Nevada, a range of mountains higher than the Rocky Mountains. Their more elevated peaks are white with perpetual snow. Between these and the ocean, and about fifty miles from the coast, is another parallel range, called the Coast Range. The valley between them is the most fertile portion of the country. Between the Sierra Nevada and the eastern boundary of the whole region, lies the

Great Basin, five hundred miles in diameter, four or five thousand feet above the ocean, having the general character of a desert, and enclosed on all sides by mountains. The *Maritime Region*, west of the Sierra Nevada, is, according to Colonel Fremont, the only part to which the name California applies, in the current language of the country. "It is the occupied and inhabited part, and so different in character—so divided by the mountain wall of the Sierra from the Great Basin above—as to constitute a region to itself, with a structure, configuration, soil, climate, and productions of its own." Looking westward from the summit of the Sierra, we behold the long, low valley of the Joaquin and Sacramento rivers—a valley lying along the base of the Sierra, and bounded on the west by the low coast range of mountains which separate it from the sea. The valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin form one valley, but each is named from the river which traverses it. The Sacramento traverses the northern, and the San Joaquin the southern valley. They unite at their entrance into the Suisun, or upper Bay of San Francisco, within the limits of tide-water, and make, as a late excellent writer remarks, "a continuous water line" from one end of the great valley to the other. The valley of the Sacramento is divided into upper and lower, the former being farther up the river, and some thousands of feet higher, than the latter. The upper is about one hundred miles in length, the lower about two hundred. The former is heavily timbered, and its climate and productions correspond to its elevation. The valley of the San Joaquin is, in general, but a few hundred feet above the sea. The Sacramento river is navigable to the rapids, two hundred miles from its mouth.



SAN Francisco Bay has been celebrated ever since its discovery as one of the best harbours in the world. It is separated from the sea by low ranges of mountains, through which is a single entrance, resembling a mountain pass. It is seventy-five miles in length from north to south, or about thirty-seven on each side of the entrance. The head of the bay is about forty miles from the entrance. By projecting points, it is subdivided into three bays, of which the northern two are called the San Pablo and Suisun Bays. The water in the bay is sufficiently deep for the largest ships; and here, perhaps, all the vessels of the world might ride in safety.

There are numerous small lakes in California. Lake Buena

Vista, one of the sources of the San Joaquin, is about eighty miles in length and fifteen in breadth. About sixty miles north of the Bay of San Francisco, is a lake called by the Californians the *Laguna*. It is about fifty miles in length. The valleys in its vicinity are highly fertile, romantic, and beautiful. Near this lake is a mountain of pure sulphur.



COLORADO, or Red River, is the largest river of Upper California. Running nearly 1,000 miles, for the most part between the south and southwest, it empties into the Gulf of California, in latitude about 32° north. It has several large tributaries, the largest and lowest of which—the Gila—enters it from the northeast, a little above its mouth. Little is known of the region through which the Colorado flows. From the reports of trappers, it would seem that the river, through a large portion of its course, is hemmed in by high mountains and precipices, and that the adjacent country is arid, sandy, and barren.

The most interesting section of California is the valley of the Sacramento—a tract already celebrated throughout the world for its *placers*, or deposits of gold. Sutter's Fort, in the vicinity of which, we believe, the first known discoveries of the precious metal were made, is about forty miles up the Sacramento. The gold region lies along the foot hills of the Sierra Nevada, and reaches upon these hills about five hundred miles in length, and thirty or forty in breadth. The streams which flow from the Sierra into the San Joaquin and Sacramento rivers, are from ten to thirty miles distant from each other. They have many tributaries, are wild and rapid in their descent from the mountains, but become more tranquil upon entering the plains below. To the banks and bars of these mountain streams, and the channels of the gorges which intersect them, and through which the streams are forced when swollen by the winter rains, the alluvial deposits of the metal are chiefly confined. This, according to Mr. Colton, seems to be a general law with regard to these deposits in California. We are not aware that any geological theory has been, or can be, of any service to the gold hunter. In the opinion of the writer just mentioned, the only law of any value in reference to alluvial deposits, are the one just mentioned, and the law, that a heavy body will tumble down hill faster than a lighter one, or that a nut shaken from a tree will drop through

the fog to the ground. The surface-gold of California will probably never be wholly exhausted. Will the gold-bearing quartz rocks fail to yield the precious ore? This is the great question which time alone can fully solve. It is the opinion of some eminent men that gold-bearing quartz occupies a broad vein through the whole extent of the foot range of the Sierra. Gold, in the shape of small, delicate scales, is sometimes found in the slate rocks. One lump of gold, perhaps the largest ever found in California, weighed twenty-three pounds, was nearly pure, and of a cubical figure.



QUICKSILVER is one of the most important mineral products of this wonderful country. Several localities are already known; but the richest is Forbes's mine, about sixty miles from San José.

At this mine, with a few labourers, and two common iron kettles for smelting, they have already sold quicksilver to a very large amount, and had, not long since, two hundred tons of ore awaiting the smelting process. The effect of these rich mines of quicksilver upon the wealth and commerce of the world, if kept from the hands of monopolists, can hardly be overrated. Mines of silver, also, are known to exist in the mountains of the gold region.

The climate of the coast is unpleasant, at least, if not unhealthy. The seasons are variable. The usual period of rain is from November to April inclusive; but in some years it is very abundant, while in others it is very sparing, and several consecutive years sometimes pass away with scarcely any rain. The southern coast of Upper California is hot and dry, except for a short time in the winter. The length of the wet season increases as we proceed northward; and, about the Bay of San Francisco, the rains are nearly constant from November to April, and fogs and heavy dews moisten the earth and nourish vegetation for the rest of the year. California is subject to long droughts, two years often bringing scarcely any rain; yet vegetation does not suffer so greatly as might be expected, because it is sustained by the fogs of the latter part of the night, and because the numerous mountain streamlets afford the means of natural and artificial irrigation. But glittering sands and glowing mines are not the only gifts which Nature has lavished upon this delightful land. Yet her sparkling streams and verdant vales, her golden grain waving to the zephyrs, her blushing fruits and beautiful flowers, had little or no charms for the great world, until she

appeared arrayed in a gilded robe—but, then, what a change! Emigrants rush from every civilized nation upon earth. Fifty thousand eager hunters for gold, of every hue and language, soon cover the slopes of the great Sierra. Even the inhabitant of the Celestial Empire, where emigration has been a crime, has found his way thither. Neither distance, nor the dangers of the deep, nor the diseases of tropical climates, nor even the infirmities of age, restrain the sordid, or the needy, or the ambitious adventurer from the dazzling but doubtful enterprise. What wonder that these emigrants should soon, like the people of Romulus, find themselves a nation of men alone? When disease shows its pale face, it must not be relieved by the tenderness and soothing care of woman. The home of the heart, which she alone can make—the home where fall the heavenly dews of sympathy, is not there. Many evils, too, were incident upon the great diversity of character among the emigrants, especially before any regular government had been organized in the territory. But these evils are gradually diminishing, and, ere long, will probably disappear for ever. Thousands, every month, are passing to and from California. Her growth seems the work of enchantment; yet her government and institutions are fast settling down to an orderly and permanent condition. The population of California in 1850 is supposed to have been 180,000. Flourishing towns and cities spring up as if by magic. Such are Benicia, Sacramento City, Sutter, Vernon, Boston, New York, Stockton, Alvezo, Stanislaus, Sonora, and Crescent City, some of which already give promise of future greatness. San Francisco has suffered greatly from fires. That of the 3d of May, 1850, was peculiarly terrific and destructive. Originating in the careless act of an individual in a paint shop, it did not cease until the city was almost wholly laid in ashes. Its progress was most appalling. The finest hotels, the most substantial warehouses, the theatre, the museum, and every newspaper establishment but one fall a prey to the devouring element. Every countenance is the picture of horror. Thousands are turned into the streets almost without notice, and without saving even a suit of clothes. Houses of wood vanish like frostwork, those of brick are “batteries of flame,” pouring forth “immense jets from their windows and doors,” while “iron and zinc curl up like the scorched leaves of the forest.” The loss of property is estimated at from ten to fifteen millions of dollars. Ten or

twelve lives were lost, and about twenty persons injured, some of them very severely.



UT such is the energy of its inhabitants that, almost before the smoke of the ruins has cleared away, the wonderful city begins to rise like a phoenix. Ere long, scarcely a trace of the destruction remains, and prosperity again smiles in San Francisco—the city destined, in spite of competition, wind, and flame, to be the great commercial emporium of California.

A San Francisco journal, of March 5, 1850, speaks of the terrible increase of crime, of all degrees, from petty theft to murder, and the pretty general belief that the laws, as they had been administered, would afford but little security to life and property. The people, therefore, had arisen in various parts of the State, and constituted a new court, for the immediate trial of offenders. In Sacramento, an inoffensive man, for endeavouring to separate two combatants, was shot down in the midst of a crowd. The people at once avenged the deed by constituting a court of their own, trying the murderer, and hanging him. “Lynch law,” says the journal above mentioned, “is not the best law that might be, but it is better than none; and so far as benefit is derived from law, there is no other here.” On the 10th of June, 1851, a similar exhibition of popular vengeance was witnessed at San Francisco. The city had long been infested with numerous desperadoes, banded together, in many instances, for the prosecution of their criminal designs. It was very difficult to detect them, and, even when they were discovered, next to impossible to secure their conviction and adequate punishment. In this state of things, many of the leading citizens had formed themselves into a detective and protective force, and maintained a regular organization as such. On the night in question, John Jenkins, said to be a native of London, was caught in the commission of a heavy robbery. He was at once arraigned before the committee alluded to, tried, convicted, and sentenced to be hung. The sentence was executed the *same night*, in the presence of an excited multitude of citizens; and the rising sun shone upon the dead body of the robber dangling from the corner of a building on the public square. We have already remarked, in substance, that a better state of things now prevails in California

SACRAMENTO City has been once inundated by the Rio Americana. "It came," says Mr. Colton, "upon the inhabitants like a thief in the night; they had only time to jump from their beds; the roaring flood was at their heels: some reached the shipping, and some sprung into the tops of the trees." A levee has since been built to exclude the water from the city.

With regard to the extent of the newly-acquired territories, it may be remarked that Oregon, California, New Mexico, and Texas, constitute a territory more than half as large as that owned by the United States previous to their acquisition. These four tracts contain 763,559,040 acres; the other States and territories contain 1,318,126,058 acres. The territory of our republic is now nearly as large as the whole of Europe. The Mississippi, so lately its frontier, is now its great central river. No one, we think, will dispute the assertion of Mr. Polk, that the acquisition of California and New Mexico, the settlement of the Oregon boundary, and the annexation of Texas, extending to the Rio Grande, are results which, combined, are of greater consequence, and will add more to the strength and wealth of the nation, than any which have preceded them since the adoption of the Constitution.





CHAPTER LIII.

ADMINISTRATION OF TAYLOR.

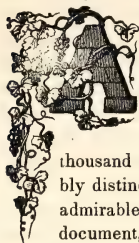


THE inauguration of General Taylor would have taken place on the 4th of March as usual, but as that day was the Sabbath, it was deferred until the 5th, when the new administration was organized with highly impressive ceremonies. The Senate was convened at eleven o'clock; and its future presiding officer, Mr. Fillmore, delivered a brief address, from which we extract the following interesting passages :

"It will not, I trust, be deemed inappropriate to congratulate you upon the scene now passing before us. I allude to it in no partisan aspect, but as an ever-recurring event contemplated by the Constitution. Compare the peaceful changes of chief magistrates of this republic with the recent sanguinary revolutions in Europe. There, the voice of the people has been heard only amid the din of arms and the horrors of domestic conflict; but here, in our own favoured land, under the guidance of our Constitution, the resistless will of the nation has, from time to time, been peacefully expressed by the free suffrages of the people, and all have bowed in obedient submission to their decree. The administration which but yesterday wielded the destinies of this great nation, to-day quietly yields up its power, and, without a murmur, retires from the capitol.

"I congratulate you, Senators, and I congratulate my country, upon these of-recurring and cheering evidences of our capacity for

self-government. Let us hope that the sublime spectacle which we now witness may be repeated as often as the people shall desire a change of rulers, and that this venerated Constitution and this glorious Union may endure forever."



AFTER the president elect, with the ex-president, and committee of arrangements, had entered the senate-chamber, a procession was formed, and, passing through the rotunda, arrived at the eastern portico of the capitol. Upon a staging above the stairs of the portico, and in presence of at least twenty thousand people, General Taylor delivered, with a remarkably distinct utterance, and with full and clear emphasis, his admirable inaugural address—a plain, sensible, well-written document, which, for its brevity and elegance, is a model worthy of all future imitation. In the discharge of his manifold duties, he said that his guide would be the Constitution, for the interpretation of which he should look to the decisions of judicial tribunals established by its authority, and to the practice of the government under the earlier presidents, who had so large a share in its formation. He regarded himself as chosen by the people, under the assurance that his administration would be devoted to the welfare of the whole country, and not to the support of particular sections, or merely local interests. He should recommend to Congress such constitutional measures as might be proper for the protection of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, the improvement of rivers and harbours, the speedy extinction of the public debt, the maintenance of strict accountability on the part of all the officers of the government, and the observance of the utmost economy in all public expenditures.

"In conclusion," says General Taylor, "I congratulate you, my fellow-citizens, upon the high state of prosperity to which the goodness of Divine Providence has conducted our common country. Let us invoke a continuance of the same protecting care which has led us from small beginnings to the eminence we this day occupy, and let us seek to deserve it by prudence and moderation in our councils; by well-directed attempts to assuage the bitterness which too often marks unavoidable differences of opinion; by the promulgation and practice of just and liberal principles; and by enlarged patriotism which shall acknowledge no limits but those of our own wide-spread republic."



HE oath of office was next administered by Chief Justice Taney. At the close of the inaugural ceremonies, the roar of artillery resounded from one end of the city to the other. The Senate had been summoned by Mr. Polk to meet upon that day, and aid in the organization of the new government. On the 6th, General Taylor submitted his nominations for members of the Cabinet, and his nominations were duly confirmed, viz., John M. Clayton, of Delaware, Secretary of State; William M. Meredith, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, Secretary of the Home Department; George W. Crawford, of Georgia, Secretary of War; William B. Preston, of Virginia, Secretary of the Navy; Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland, Attorney General; and Jacob Collamer, of Vermont, Postmaster General. The removals from office were fewer than under some former Presidents, the old General being resolutely opposed to such removals, when designed merely as proscriptions—thus taking a position with which some of his former supporters were very much dissatisfied.

One of the important diplomatic acts of General Taylor's administration, was the negotiation of a treaty with Great Britain for the construction of a ship canal between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Its perpetual freedom is guaranteed to all nations upon just and equal terms. This measure is one of the most important steps taken in the march of human improvement during the present century. The conditions of the treaty exhibit that enlightened and enlarged spirit of national philanthropy which does great honour to Mr. Clayton and Sir Henry Bulwer, the British minister to the United States. In connection with the miraculous growth of California, and the immense emigration to that country, as well as in other relations, what must be the effects of this treaty upon the improvement and prosperity of the civilized world!

During this year, the awful fatality, which marked the progress of the Asiatic cholera, excited almost universal consternation. Pursuing a direction contrary to that of 1832, it reached our shores at the southwest, and for a long time committed the most dreadful ravages in Louisiana, Texas, and Mexico, and in the valleys of the Mississippi and Ohio, before it made its appearance at the North. In appalling numbers the people fell before the dreadful scourge, the fatal results being no doubt multiplied by the inexperience of the

physicians in this disease, and by fear, improper diet, and that want of cleanliness which is, in some measure, unavoidable by the poorer classes in all our cities. Its malignancy at St. Louis, Cincinnati, Louisville, and the smaller towns upon the Mississippi and Ohio, is unparalleled in the history of modern epidemics. In the latter part of November, 1848, it appeared at San Francisco, and many a young man from the States, while far away from his home and his kindred, fell a victim to the terrible destroyer. Business, in many places, suffered greatly from the prevalence of the disease. In a few weeks it gradually abated, and in the following month entirely disappeared. On the 14th of May, it broke out in New York city, the first cases occurring at a place celebrated for its filth, vice, and destitution. During the week ending on the 21st of July, 714 persons died of cholera in the city of New York. The whole number of deaths was 5017; the whole number of cases is unknown.



IN view of this fearful visitation, the President recommended that the first Friday in August be observed throughout the nation as a day of fasting and prayer. New York and the Atlantic cities were relieved from the cholera in the fall; but it still lingered in the southwest, and, even in the fall of 1850, raged more or less severely at various places in that portion of the Union.

It had been, for some time, rumoured that an armed expedition against Cuba was contemplated in the United States. In August, 1849, the President issued a proclamation, warning the citizens of the republic against engaging in an enterprise "so grossly in violation of our laws and treaty obligations." What effect this proclamation had in preventing such attempts for the future, will be seen in a subsequent part of this chapter.

The rapid growth and brilliant prospects of California, her adoption of a constitution by which slavery was to be forever excluded from her territory, and her intended application for admission into the Union, produced the most intense excitement in every section of the country. Men looked forward with unusual interest to the meeting of Congress. The anti-slavery men of the North exulted in the present situation of affairs, thinking it to indicate a state of public sentiment which would lead to the utter extermination of slavery. The politicians and leading planters of the South, fearing perhaps for the present safety of their institutions, resolved to prevent, at all hazards, the admission of California with her present boundaries and

constitution. Another element of controversy was the interest of those speculators, in and out of Congress, who owned property in California, had received or were expecting contracts from her existing government, and upon whom her admission would confer splendid fortunes. Another friend of that admission was found in Colonel Thomas H. Benton, United States Senator from Missouri, whose son-in-law, Colonel Fremont, had immense possessions in California—possessions said to contain inexhaustible mines of gold, the title to which he naturally wished to place upon a secure foundation. Colonel Fremont was also elected a United States Senator from California, and was at Washington, with his colleague, Mr Gwinn, anxiously waiting to be admitted as a member of the national council.



ON the 3d of December, Congress commenced its session. Its members shared in the excitement which prevailed throughout the country. Many fruitless efforts were made in the House to elect a speaker. The number of ballottings was sixty-three, occupying the space of twenty days. This unprecedented delay was occasioned by the "free soil" members, who, though few in numbers, were able to prevent either of the great parties from effecting a choice. The democratic candidate, Mr. Cobb, however, was at length elected. The message of General Taylor called the attention of Congress to a revision of the tariff, improvements in rivers and harbours, strict neutrality in relation to foreign contending powers, and the establishment of a branch-mint in California, and also recommended the admission of that territory with the constitution she had already formed.

Early in the session, Mr. Clay presented a series of carefully digested resolutions designed to settle amicably all the questions in dispute between the North and the South growing out of the subject of slavery. These resolutions he supported, on a subsequent day, by one of the most powerful and masterly speeches in the whole range of ancient or modern oratory. He had no personal aspirations of a political nature—he should soon pass away—he should soon be beyond the reach of praise or censure, but he wished to make one more effort in behalf of the country which he loved, which he had served so long, and which would be dear to his heart to the latest hour of his existence. The Union itself was in danger. Many

persons no longer thought of a separation with dread, or trembled at the calamities of civil war. "Sir," said the venerable statesman, "I implore gentlemen, I adjure them, whether from the South or the North, by all they hold dear in this world—by all their love of liberty—by all their veneration for their ancestors—by all their gratitude to Him who has bestowed upon them such unnumbered and countless blessings—by all the duties which they owe to mankind—and by all the duties which they owe to themselves, to pause, solemnly to pause at the edge of the precipice, before the fatal and dangerous leap is taken into the yawning abyss below, from which none who ever take it shall return in safety." This speech carried conviction to the minds of all unprejudiced persons, and raised up in Congress a powerful party favourable to compromise, and composed of wags and democrats, of Northerners and Southerners





JOHN C. CALHOUN



JOHN C. CALHOUN, the great orator and statesman, then senator from South Carolina, took a deep interest in the great questions which were agitating the country, and though extremely feeble in health, sometimes took part in the discussions of the Senate. He was unwell when he left home, and his malady was greatly increased by his labours and mental anxiety at Washington. Yet even from the bed of sickness he could not forbear to lift up his warning voice against measures which, in his opinion, would benefit the North at the expense of the South. At this critical and, we might perhaps say decisive, period, this great champion of Southern interests, the man whose station as an eloquent advocate and faithful defender of the rights of the South, and whose place in the affections of the Southern people can never again be filled, was removed by death from the turbulent arena of political strife, while yet the dark cloud of disunion seemed to hover over his beloved country. The funeral obsequies of this great man, and the honours everywhere paid to his memory, demon-

strated the respect which all parties entertained for his character, and showed, in the most impressive and touching manner, that his constituents were deeply sensible that their strong pillar had been removed, and that its loss was indeed irreparable.

Mr. Calhoun was born in Abbeyville district, South Carolina, on the 18th of March, 1782. He was of an Irish family. His father, Patrick Calhoun, was born in Ireland, and at an early age came to Pennsylvania, whence he went to the western part of Virginia, and removed to South Carolina in the year 1756. Mr. Calhoun's mother was a Miss Caldwell, of Charleston, Virginia. His early means of instruction were limited by his location in a newly-settled country, among a sparse population, sustained by emigrants from Virginia and Pennsylvania, with but little connection with the lower country of South Carolina. At the age of thirteen, he was put under the charge of his brother-in-law, Dr. Waddel, in Columbia county, Georgia; but he had scarcely commenced his literary course, before his father and sister died. His teacher, occupied with his clerical duties, was a good deal absent from home: on his second marriage he resumed the duties of his academy. Under his instruction, young Calhoun progressed with great rapidity. Before this, however, he had availed himself of the advantage of a small library, and became deeply interested in the perusal of history. In 1802, he became a student in Yale College, and two years afterwards, graduated with a reputation for great abilities, and with the respect and confidence of his preceptors and associates. He afterwards studied law, and for a few years practised in the courts of South Carolina. He served for a few years in the Legislature of that State, and his great mind has left upon her statute-book impressions of great practical importance to society. He came into Congress at a time of deep and exciting interest. The invincibility of Great Britain had almost become proverbial. But Mr. Calhoun, in conjunction with Henry Clay and others, among whom were Cheves and Lowndes, sustained the war of 1812 throughout, and forever associated their names with the glorious history of that period. At the close of Madison's administration, he was regarded as one of the sages of the republic. In 1817, Mr. Monroe offered him a place in his cabinet. His friends feared lest his bright reputation might be tarnished in this new sphere of action. Their fears were groundless. He assumed the duties of the War Department, and what was complex and confused, he soon reduced to simplicity and order. His

organization of the department, and his manner of discharging its undefined duties, have the impress of originality and the sanction of experience. He took his seat in the Senate as Vice-President on the 4th of March, 1825, having remained in the War Department more than seven years. As the presiding officer of this body, he had the universal respect of its members. Posterity will do justice to the part which, at a later period, he acted in the controversy between South Carolina and the federal government. [See p. 526.] The death of Mr. Upshur left vacant the State Department, which, by the common consent of all parties, Mr. Calhoun was called to fill. "Under Calhoun's counsel," says one of his eulogists, "Texas was brought into the Union; his name is associated with one of the most remarkable events of history—that of one republic being annexed to another by voluntary consent." His connection with the executive department of the federal government terminated with the administration of Mr. Tyler. While Secretary of State, he won the confidence and respect of foreign ambassadors. His dispatches were marked by clearness, sagacity, and boldness.



R. CALHOUN was an acute reasoner, well versed in all the subtleties of logic. Perhaps no man was ever better qualified to make "the worse appear the better reason;" perhaps, too, his Southern views and prejudices were sometimes allowed too much influence over his judgment; but his sincerity, his strict integrity, his love of truth, and his pure and incorruptible patriotism, were always conceded even by his strongest political opponents. A statue of this distinguished man was executed by Hiram Powers, the great American sculptor, then residing in Italy.

For months the resolutions of Mr. Clay occupied the attention of the Senate to the exclusion of almost all other subjects. A proposition was made by Mr. Foote to refer the whole matter to a committee of thirteen. After a long debate this course was adopted, and the committee appointed, of which Mr. Clay was chairman. On the 8th of May, he presented the report of the committee, including the famous "Compromise or Omnibus Bill," the measures proposed in which were as follows:

1. The admission of any new State or States formed out of Texas to be postponed until they shall hereafter present themselves for admission into the Union, when it will be the duty of Congress

fairly and faithfully to execute the compact with Texas by admitting such new State or States.

2. The admission forthwith of California into the Union, with the boundaries she has proposed.

3. The establishment of territorial governments, without the Wilmot proviso, for New Mexico and Utah, embracing all the territory recently acquired by the United States from Mexico, not contained in the boundaries of California.

4. The combination of these two last-mentioned measures in the same bill.

5. The establishment of the western and northern boundaries of Texas, and the exclusion from her jurisdiction of all New Mexico, with the grant to Texas of a pecuniary equivalent; and the section for that purpose to be incorporated in the bill admitting California, and establishing territorial governments for Utah and New Mexico.

6. More effectual enactments of law to secure the prompt delivery of persons bound to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, who escape into another State.

7. Abstaining from abolishing slavery; but, under a heavy penalty, prohibiting the slave-trade in the District of Columbia.



FOR months this report was the subject of a most spirited and, we are sorry to add, angry and violent discussion in the Senate. Almost every member entered the field of debate. The dignity of that high branch of the legislature was sadly lowered by the rash retort and disgraceful personal invective in which senators permitted themselves to indulge. But the violence of political controversy was soon to be rebuked, and, for a moment, arrested by a solemn, unexpected, and peculiarly afflictive dispensation of Providence.

General Taylor had participated in the celebration of the ever-memorable 4th of July, and had suffered greatly from exposure and fatigue. On the 5th he was attacked with a violent cholera morbus, and on the 9th, his illness, which had not been regarded as dangerous, ended in death. As no man, since the days of Washington, had been more beloved than General Taylor, the effect of the news of his death, when borne upon the lightning wings of the telegraph, can better be imagined than described. The heart of the nation almost ceased to beat. Sadness and gloom filled every mansion, and reached every cottage in the land. Even the most indifferent and

insensible felt as if a father, a counsellor, a protector, and a friend had been taken from their side. It was difficult to bow submissively to the irreversible decree of Providence. In every city, buildings shrouded in the sable habiliments of woe, the tolling bell, the solemn and plaintive strains of mournful music, the funeral procession, and the funeral oration spoke eloquently, but inadequately of the deep and inexpressible grief which had filled every heart. He who had been so long inured to the hardship's of a soldier's life—who, even in the winter of his days, had safely borne the toils and miraculously escaped the dangers of the fields of Mexico who had never surrendered to an enemy of his country—the beloved hero and the beloved President, had fallen suddenly and unexpectedly, while enjoying the reward of his services, and the affection and veneration of a grateful people. He had fought his last battle, and surrendered only where all must surrender—to a foe whose victory, sooner or later, is inevitably sure. He left behind, as a priceless legacy, the bright example of a man who, to use his own dying words, had, throughout life, “endeavoured to do his duty.”

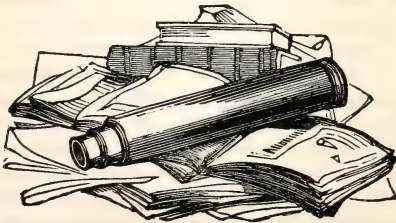


GENERAL ZACHARY TAYLOR, the second son of Colonel Richard Taylor, was born in Orange county, Virginia, in November, 1784. About two hundred years ago, his ancestors emigrated from England, and settled in Eastern Virginia. After distinguishing himself in the Revolutionary War, his father, about the year 1790, left Virginia for Kentucky, settled on the “dark and bloody ground,” and for years endured the heavy trials then inseparable from a border life. The shrill war-whoop, the gleam of the tomahawk, the sharp crack of the rifle, the homestead saved by the courage of his father, were among his earliest recollections. It was in scenes like these that his young nerves acquired firmness, and the foundation of his military education and character was laid. He was sent to school at an early age. The venerable Elisha Ayers, now residing in Preston, Connecticut, was his teacher; and we have often heard him descant with rapture on the quick apprehension of his quondam pupil, his studious habits, and the many other excellences of his character.

In his earlier military exploits, which were scarcely less glorious than those of his later campaigns, he displayed all those remarkable

traits of character which have since elicited the highest admiration of his countrymen and of the world. In 1808, he entered the army as first lieutenant, in the 7th regiment of infantry, and having soon distinguished himself in border skirmishes with the savages, and in the bloody battle of Tippecanoe, was promoted to the rank of captain. In the war of 1812, Captain Taylor was intrusted with the defence of Fort Harrison, on the Wabash. Its works were in a miserable condition, and it was garrisoned by only fifty men, thirty of whom were disabled by sickness. Yet, with this feeble aid, he immediately began to repair the fortifications. These were hardly completed when, on the night of the 4th of September, 1812, an alarm shot summoned him from a bed of fever to meet the attack of a large force of the Miami Indians. The sentinels are driven in, a blockhouse is fired by the enemy, and a thick discharge of bullets and arrows is poured in upon the fort. The howlings of the savages heard in the darkness of the night, the shrieks of women and children, the terror of the sick, and the apparently certain destruction of the garrison, would have forced almost any other leader to surrender in despair; but nothing could shake the calm bravery, or disturb the cool judgment of the youthful commander. Inspired by him with a portion of his own energy, the soldiers extinguish the flames, and for six hours return the fire of the Indians until daybreak enables the whites to aim with greater precision; soon after which the Indians disperse and retreat down the river. One of his superior officers, in a letter to the Governor of Kentucky, says, "The firm and almost unparalleled defence of Fort Harrison by Captain Zachary Taylor has raised him a fabric of character not to be affected by eulogy." It procured for him the rank of brevet major in the American army. In 1832, he was advanced to the rank of colonel; and, soon after the commencement of the Florida war, he was ordered to that territory. Here, in constant and arduous service, he continued to distinguish himself, and his whole career was such as to increase the confidence and admiration of his countrymen. While in Florida he fought with the Seminoles the ever memorable battle of Okee-Chobee—a battle remarkable for the bravery and skill displayed on both sides. Seven hundred Indian warriors occupied a dense hammock, with a small but nearly impassable stream in front, their flanks being secured by swamps that were altogether impassable. Colonel Taylor's force amounted to about five hundred men, composed partly of raw volunteers. With great exertion, our soldiers, sinking nearly to

the middle in mire, cross the stream under a most galling fire, and a close and desperate conflict ensues. In one of our companies only four privates escape unharmed. During the fight, Colonel Taylor is constantly passing on horseback from one point to another, and within range of the Indian rifles, without the least seeming regard for his personal safety. The whites gained a complete victory—a victory which broke the power and spirit of the Seminoles and gained for its hero the thanks of the President of the United States—a victory whose importance was still further acknowledged by the promotion of Taylor to the rank of brigadier-general by brevet, for “distinguished services in the battle of Okee-Chobee in Florida.” The glorious victories of General Taylor in the late war with Mexico, have already occupied the attention of our readers. In person, General Taylor was about the middle height, and was a little inclined to corpulency. His countenance strongly indicated the real benevolence of his heart. As a military chief, he must be allowed to stand in the very first rank. He was not indifferent to the good opinion of his countrymen, but he was not desirous of political preferment. At his inauguration, his appearance was so unassuming that many persons could not, without difficulty, believe that he was the general whose fame had filled the civilized world. What would have been his policy had he lived, cannot of course be known with certainty; there is every reason, however, to believe that it **would have promoted the peace and prosperity of his country.**





HON. MILLARD FILLMORE.



AFTER proper demonstrations of respect for the deceased President, the business of Congress was again resumed. On the 10th of July, 1850, the Hon. Millard Fillmore took the oath prescribed by the Constitution, and succeeded General Taylor as President of the United States. Mr. Fillmore was born on the 7th of January, 1800, at Summer Hill, in Cayuga County, New York. He enjoyed only the advantages of common schools until the age of fifteen, when he was apprenticed to the wool-carding business, in Livingston County. Here he remained four years, in the mean time devouring the contents of the village library. Judge Waterwood, a sound lawyer and a benevolent man, perceiving his talents, prevailed on him to quit his intended occupation, and commence the study of law in his office. In 1829, and the two succeeding years, he was elected to the State Legislature; and it was principally through his activity, zeal, and eloquence, that the laws for imprisonment for debt were partially repealed. In 1832, he was elected to Congress, as a member of the House of Representatives. In 1836, he greatly distinguished himself by his report on the New Jersey case.

The new cabinet of Mr. Fillmore consisted of Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, Secretary of State; Thomas Corwin, of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; Charles M. Conrad, of Louisiana, Secretary of War; William A. Graham, of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Alexander H. H. Stewart, of Virginia, Secretary of the

Interior; Nathan K. Hall, of New York, Postmaster-General; and John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, Attorney-General. A cabinet of great ability, and one which commanded the respect and confidence of the country.

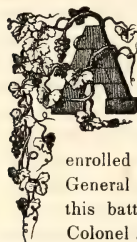


THE discussion of the Compromise Bill, with all its violence and sectional jealousies, was now continued. The bill was brought out under favourable auspices, and supported by the powerful arguments and eloquence of Clay, Webster, Foote, Dickinson, Cass, and many others. Moderate men and the friends of the Union everywhere had, therefore, great hopes of its success. But the message of General Taylor had merely recommended the admission of California, the other questions being left to the future, and territorial governments provided for New Mexico and Utah, as they might be in a condition to demand them. This message was insisted on by some members of the government, and by their friends of the press, as defining the course of the administration; and its high authority, combined with other causes, was sufficient to defeat the Compromise Bill. But essentially the same measures in separate bills were adopted before the close of the session. On the 26th of August, the Fugitive Slave Bill passed both houses. A bill was passed providing for the adjustment of the boundary of Texas, and the establishment of a territorial government over New Mexico. California was admitted with a constitution by which slavery is forever prohibited. Utah, whenever admitted into the Union, was to be received with or without slavery, as its own constitution may prescribe at the time of its admission. The peaceful settlement of the exciting questions which had threatened disunion, if not civil war, greatly relieved the public mind throughout the country. To complete the matter, a bill abolishing the domestic slave-trade in the District of Columbia, received the sanction of both houses of Congress. This session of Congress closed on the 30th of September.

In the summer of this year, the case of Dr. John White Webster, a professor in the medical college of Boston, and under sentence of death for the murder of Dr. George Parkman, a very wealthy physician of Boston, excited the deepest sensation throughout the country. The high standing of the parties, the horrid details of the murder, and the doubts which, notwithstanding the conclusive nature of the evidence, existed in the minds of many with regard to the guilt

of the accused, rendered the subject one of absorbing interest, and, indeed, drew the attention of the whole civilized world. It was difficult to believe that a man in Professor Webster's position would commit such a deed, merely to escape the payment of a few hundred dollars. But all doubts were at length removed by the confession of the prisoner himself. The most earnest efforts were made to obtain a commutation of punishment; but they were unsuccessful, and the unhappy man was executed on the 30th of August.

A more pleasing source of excitement was found in the arrival of Jenny Lind, the celebrated Swedish songstress, and, probably, in vocal music, the greatest artist of ancient or modern times. The fascination of her manners, and the goodness of her heart, no less than her unrivalled talents, contributed to win for her a popularity never before or since enjoyed by any musical performer.



ANOTHER hero soon followed the lamented Taylor in death. On the 19th of November, Col. Richard M. Johnson, former Vice-President of the United States, died at his residence, in Scott County, Kentucky, in the 65th year of his age. His gallant achievements at the battle of the Thames have enrolled his name among those of our greatest heroes. General Harrison, who commanded the American forces in this battle, found his most efficient aid in the bravery of Colonel Johnson, who, at the head of his regiment, dashed through the enemy's lines, throwing them into complete disorder; when, an attack being also made in the rear, the enemy were compelled to surrender. The famous Tecumseh fell by the hands of Colonel Johnson himself. While a member of Congress, he acquired a great reputation by his celebrated Sunday Mail Report against the suspension of the Sunday mails. The people of many parts of New England will remember with pleasure the visit of Col. Johnson in 1843.

The Fugitive Slave Law, whose passage has been already mentioned, met with severe opposition in the free States, and attempts to enforce it sometimes led to scenes of popular tumult and commotion. On its first passage, the law had created great excitement at the North, and was by many persons declared to be unconstitutional, as it seemed to contravene the right of habeas corpus, and deny to the fugitive any thing like a fair and impartial trial. The opinion of the Attorney-General, Mr. Crittenden, that the law did not con-

tradict the right of habeas corpus, was not sufficient to silence the opposition of the Northern abolitionists.

The first application of the law was in the case of James Hamlet. He was arrested on the 27th of September, in the city of New York, examined before the United States Commissioner, and was delivered over to his claimant.



IN Detroit, the arrest of a negro, as an alleged fugitive slave, created so much excitement, with threats of violent rescue, that the military were called out, and, with loaded arms, escorted the fugitive from the prison to the court-room. The matter was finally compromised by the purchase of the slave, by public subscription, for the sum of \$500. This case occurred in the early part of October, and about the middle of the month occurred the famous case of the Crafts in Boston. William and Ellen Crafts, reputed fugitive slaves, resided in the city of Boston. William H. Hughes and John Knight, as agents for the owner of the fugitives, visited Boston for the purpose of claiming them. After much delay, they procured the issue of a warrant to arrest the slaves, but were themselves arrested as kidnappers, put under heavy bonds, surrounded and hissed by the populace, again arrested for violation of law, and finally compelled to leave without effecting the object of their mission. The fugitives, who had been in concealment, afterwards left the country for England.

On the 23d of December, Henry Long was arrested in the city of New York. The event caused much excitement, but no attempt was made to resist the law. On the 8th of January, 1851, Judge Judson, of the United States District Court, delivered his opinion of the case before a densely crowded audience, and ordered the surrender of the fugitive to his claimant.

On the 15th of February, a slave, named Shadrach, was arrested in Boston. The consequences were a scene of great popular tumult, and the subsequent rescue of the prisoner by the mob. The claimant was John De Bree, of Norfolk, purser in the United States Navy. His attorney secured the arrest of Shadrach, and had him brought up for examination. A delay, on the ground of want of preparation, being asked by the counsel for the prisoner, and granted by the Commissioner, the court-room is partially deserted. A company, principally of coloured persons, rush in, rescue the slave from the

hands of the marshal and his assistants, and bear him away in triumph. A powerful sensation was produced throughout the country. The attention of government was aroused, and the President communicated a message to Congress in relation to the subject. Meanwhile, the fugitive effected his escape. Several persons were arrested and tried for aiding in a conspiracy to defeat the execution of the law.

In the case of Sims, arrested in Boston on the 3d of April, the law was successfully enforced. An effort to take the prisoner from the United States Marshal, and bring him before the State court for having inflicted, with a knife, a severe wound upon the officer who first arrested him, was overruled, and the fugitive was finally sent home to his master.



N the 2d of December, 1850, Congress assembled, and the first annual message from President Fillmore was communicated to both houses on the same day. The accompanying report of the Secretary of the Treasury showed that the receipts into the Treasury exceeded the expenditures by more than four millions of dollars, and that the public debt had been reduced to about \$495,277. Among the important acts of the session was the passage of the Reform Postage Bill. It was passed on the last day of the session. Although the rates of postage are still higher than many of the friends of reform wished them to be, the reduction is considerable, and will, by increasing the facilities for correspondence, undoubtedly be of great service to the country. In connection with the Reform Postage Law, a new silver coin, of the value of three cents, was authorized to be issued from the Mint. The tariff was amended at this session by the passage of a new Appraisement Bill, providing: 1st, That imported articles shall be appraised at their market value at the period of exportation; 2d, That to this value shall be added all costs and charges, excepting insurance, and including the charge of commission; and 3d, That these charges shall be made as the true value at the port where the same shall be entered. This established the principle of a "home valuation," for which the friends of a high tariff have long contended. The session terminated on the 4th of March.

Early in May, the Erie Railroad was opened. It extends from Piermont, on the Hudson, 24 miles above the city of New York, to

Dunkirk, on Lake Erie, a distance of 436 miles. This road—the greatest work ever undertaken by private enterprise—connects the Ocean with the Far West, passing through the most populous and wealthy State of the Union, and, like some mighty artery for the circulation of the life-blood, conveying the products of the West, and the manufactures and importations of the East; while countless thousands avail themselves of an easy and pleasant mode of traveling through one of the most interesting portions of the country. The occasion of its completion and opening was graced by the presence of the Chief Magistrate of the Nation and several members of the Cabinet. Along the entire route, the people turn out in masses to honour their distinguished visitors and the great event which called them hither; and speeches and celebrations are the order of the day. The entire cost of this road was about \$24,000,000. The Erie rail is used through its whole length. It employs over 100 engines, and nearly 400 men.



IN the early part of this year, the attention of the civilized world was strongly drawn to the Great Exhibition of the Industry of All Nations, or the "World's Fair," at London; an exhibition planned, we believe, by his Royal Highness Prince Albert, and one which will confer lasting honour upon his name, as marking the commencement of a new era in the progress of the human race. Although the American department at this exhibition was necessarily inferior in some respects to those of some other nations, yet, in some of those arts generally regarded as useful rather than ornamental, the inventive genius of our people shone with pre-eminent lustre. The victory obtained by the yacht *America*, in a trial of speed, created a great sensation in both hemispheres, and aroused the attention of the English to our decided superiority in the art of shipbuilding, if not in that of seamanship. An American, Mr. Hobbs, also gained great celebrity by exhibiting a lock which, for the purpose of securing property, was found decidedly superior to every other.

Let us now recur to the contemplated invasion of Cuba. Notwithstanding the proclamation of the President, an expedition for the purpose just mentioned left New Orleans on the 25th of April, 1850, and on the 22d of the succeeding month. It consisted of from five to seven hundred men, under the command of General Narcissus Lopez, an exiled Cuban of some note, and considerable

military experience. The ostensible object of this movement was a voyage to California, and many, it is said, enlisted under this assurance. The business was conducted with a secrecy, which prevented the knowledge of the American government, and eluded the vigilance of the Spanish consuls.



ON the 19th of May, just before daylight, General Lopez landed his forces at Cardenas, a small town in the northeastern portion of the island. A combat ensues between the invaders and the garrison, and results in the defeat of the latter. The Governor is taken prisoner, the palace plundered, and the public money seized. But this triumph is of short duration. About daylight, a body of Spanish troops appear, marching upon the town, when the invaders demand to be reconducted to their vessels, in which they make the best of their way towards the coast of the United States, reaching Key West just in time to escape a Spanish war-steamer sent to pursue them. Some of the party being left behind, are captured and sent to Havana. The rest scatter themselves about Key West, and beg their way home, while Lopez himself reaches Savannah and New Orleans in safety, in spite of attempts to detain him on a criminal charge, made at the instigation of the Secretary of State, but failing from want of evidence or proper jurisdiction, or for some other reason. About the same time, the Susan Loud and another vessel were captured off the coast of Cuba, with one hundred men, collected for the invasion of the island, but who subsequently declared that they embarked under false pretences, and supposed they were going to California. After much negotiation, it being clearly seen that our government had done all in its power to suppress the expedition, the prisoners were sent home, and a good understanding once more established with the Spanish authorities. General Quitman, one of the heroes of the Mexican war, and General Henderson, were prosecuted, at the instance of the government, as secret abettors of the expedition. The trials ended in the early part of 1851, when, for want of sufficient evidence, the defendants were acquitted. Active measures being taken by the government, the operations of the invaders were checked for a season.

Late in July, the news arrived that a portion of the people of Cuba had taken up arms for the purpose of throwing off the yoke of Spain and achieving the political independence of the island. On the 2d,

a *pronunciamento* had been issued by the revolutionists, whose headquarters were in the vicinity of Principe, which, with some smaller towns, was said to have declared for freedom. In several skirmishes the insurgents seem to have been the victors. Meanwhile, an expedition from the United States, under Lopez, was fitted out to aid the revolutionary party. On the night of the 11th of August, the General, with about 480 men, effected a landing at Playtas, about twenty leagues from Havana. Leaving Colonel Crittenden at this point with about 100 men in charge of the stores, he proceeded with the remainder of his force to the town of Las Posas. The inhabitants fled as he approached, neither joining his standard nor giving him aid or encouragement of any kind. The day after landing, Col. Crittenden was attacked by the Spanish troops, and, after struggling as long as possible, was compelled by superior force to retire from the field. Finding that neither Lopez, who was only three miles off, nor any of the inhabitants came to their aid, they resolved to return to the United States. They procured small boats, and had just got to sea when they were followed, and about fifty of them were captured on the 15th by the Spanish war-steamer Habanero. They were carried to Havana on the 16th, and on the 17th were shot by order of the government. Among the unfortunate victims were several Americans of distinction. It was at first reported that they were not tried, but shot immediately, and that their bodies were shockingly mutilated, and every possible indignity offered to their remains by the Cuban populace. But these statements were afterwards contradicted. It was said that they were properly tried and condemned, and that after their execution they were decently interred. Some of them, among whom was Colonel Crittenden, wrote letters to their friends at home, all of which agreed that they had been grossly deceived as to the state of popular feeling in Cuba. When the news of the execution of the fifty men reached the United States, great excitement and indignation prevailed, large meetings were held in various cities, and the conduct of the Spanish authorities in this brutal transaction was condemned without measure. When the intelligence reached New Orleans, with the report of the insults heaped upon the dead bodies, the popular agitation was overwhelming. The residence of the Spanish Consul and the shops of the Spaniards are attacked, and the office of a Spanish newspaper was destroyed.



HE remaining portion of the forces under Lopez was finally doomed to a similar defeat. On the 13th, they were attacked by a large body of Spanish troops at Las Posas. The action was severe, and the Spaniards were repulsed. Lopez lost about fifty men, but retained possession of the place.

But he soon perceived that his hopes of aid from the Cubans were groundless, and that he could not maintain himself against the Spanish troops, and he determined, therefore, to conceal himself among the mountains. On the way thither several battles were fought with Spanish detachments, the invaders suffering severely in each, and inflicting losses more or less serious on their opponents. Among the Spaniards who fell was General Enna, a distinguished officer, who was buried at Havana with military honours. While the remaining troops of Lopez were breakfasting at Martitorena, on the 24th, they were surprised by an overwhelming Spanish force, and completely dispersed. From that time, if we can trust the Spanish accounts, they are zealously hunted down by all classes; the peasants pursue them with dogs, the negroes aid in their capture, and every part of the population display the most active and devoted loyalty to the Spanish government. On the 28th, Lopez, with only six followers, was endeavouring to conceal himself, and escape to the sea-coast; but on the 29th he was captured in the Pinos de Rangel, by a guide named Jose Antonio Castañeda, with fifteen peasants. He was conveyed by night to Havana, where orders were immediately given for his execution. It took place at seven o'clock on the morning of the 1st of September. He perished by the *garote vil*, an instrument consisting of an iron chair, with a back, upon which, at a point even with the head of the sitter, are iron clasps fitting the sides of the head, and a clasp to pass round the throat. Behind is a long iron bar attached to a screw, which, by a single turn from the executioner, draws the throat and side pieces tight, and at the same time sends an iron rod into the spinal marrow, causing instantaneous death. In the present instance, the machine was placed upon a scaffold, about ten feet high in the centre of a large square, surrounded by troops. Lopez behaved throughout like a brave man. He walked, surrounded by a guard, to the steps of the scaffold as coolly as if he were at the head of his troops. He was dressed in a long white gown, and a white cap. His wrists were tied before, and above his elbows be

hind, with cords, which were held by soldiers. He ascended the steps with two friends. He faced round, looked upon the soldiers and the immense throng outside of the square; then turned round and knelt in prayer for about a minute. He then rose, turned to the front, and in a clear, manly voice, loud enough to be heard by the thousands present, (it being as still as night,) spoke as follows: "Countrymen: I most solemnly, in this last awful moment of my life, ask your pardon for any injury I have caused you. It was not my wish to injure any one; my object was your freedom and happiness." Here he was interrupted by the commanding officer in front. He concluded by saying: "My intention was good, and my hope is in God." He then bowed, turned round, and took his seat apparently with as much coolness as if taking a chair in a room with his friends. He placed his head back, between the iron grasps, and the negro adjusted the throat clasp, and tied his feet to bolts on each side of the seat. During this preparation, Lopez conversed with his friends. The executioner takes his place at the iron bar behind. Lopez kisses the cross handed him by his friend, the negro gives one turn of the wrench, and Lopez dies instantly without a struggle. The military return to the city, the band playing a quick step, and the thousands disperse with little or no noise. About 150 prisoners remained in the hands of the colonial government, and were sent to Spain to be incarcerated. By the interposition of our government, they were released in a few months, and perfect harmony with Spain was restored.



ABOUT this time scenes of great excitement were passing in California. Two men—Whitaker and McKenzie—were in prison at San Francisco awaiting their trial. Fearing that justice might not be done them, the self-appointed Vigilance Committee broke in the prison doors, took the men out on Sunday, during divine service, and hanged them in front of the building. An immense crowd of people approved and encouraged the proceedings, and the authorities made very slight resistance to the mob. At Sacramento, three men, convicted of highway robbery, had been sentenced to be hanged. Robinson, one of them, was respited by the Governor for a month. The day for the execution of the other two arrives. The sheriff orders Gibson and Thompson to the place of execution, and directs Robinson to be taken to a prison-ship, in which he could be secured. The

crowd refuse to allow this, and retain him in custody. The two others are executed by the sheriff, who immediately leaves the ground. Robinson is then brought forward, and, after proper religious exercises, is also hanged. These transactions created much excitement in California; but it soon subsided, it being generally granted that justice had been attained, although by irregular means.



PUBLIC interest was excited, in the early part of October, by the safe return of the *Advance* and *Rescue*, two small brigs, the former of 140 tons, the latter of 90 tons, sent out by Mr. Henry Grinnell, a wealthy merchant of New York city, in search of Sir John Franklin and his companions. Unsuccessful with regard to its main object, the expedition was yet not wholly fruitless, as discoveries were made which served to revive hope with regard to the missing adventurers. The brigs entered Wellington Sound on the 26th of August, 1850, and were joined by Captain Penny, who commanded the vessel sent out by Lady Franklin. The perseverance of this self-sacrificing and devoted woman has touched the hearts of millions, and is worthy of everlasting remembrance and admiration. On the 27th, the navigators saw in a cove on the shore of Beechy Island, or Beechy Cape, on the east side of the entrance of Wellington Channel, indubitable evidence that Sir John Franklin's companions were there in April, 1846. There they found articles that had belonged to the *Erebus* and *Terror*, the ships under the command of Sir John. There lay, bleached to the whiteness of the surrounding snow, a piece of canvas, having the name of the *Terror* marked on it with indestructible charcoal. It was very faint, yet perfectly legible. They also found tin canisters for packing meat, an anvil block, remnants of clothing, and other articles. But the most instructive, yet at the same time the most melancholy traces of the lost ones, were three graves in a little sheltered cove, each with a board at the head, bearing the name of the sleeper below with the date of his death. These dates were January 1st, 1846, January 4th, 1846, and April 3d, 1846. The graves were in latitude about 74° north. There was evidence that the survivors had gone northward, for sledge tracks in that direction were distinctly visible. On the 13th of December, 1850, the vessels started to return, but were frozen in near the mouth of Wellington Channel. For nearly nine months they were threatened with destruction from



THE PRINCE ALBERT IN A DANGEROUS POSITION.



ADVANCE AND RESCUE DRIFTING.

the crushing of the ice around them, and were borne along by the southeast drift, until, on the 10th of June, they emerged into the open sea, in latitude $65^{\circ} 30'$, and 1060 miles from the spot where they were first fixed in ice—a drift which, for extent and duration, is unparalleled in the history of Arctic navigation. The officers and men of the American vessels, after this season of fearful peril, returned without the loss of a single life, and in excellent health. The officers thought it far from impossible that Sir John Franklin might be still alive, hemmed in by ice at some point which they were unable to reach. They agreed in the opinion that a steamer should accompany any expedition which should hereafter be sent upon the same mission.



CONGRESS assembled on the 1st of December; and, on the following day, the message of the President was communicated to both Houses. Among other subjects alluded to in this document, was the expected arrival of the Hungarian ex-governor, Louis Kossuth, to convey whom from Turkey, the United States steam-frigate Mississippi had been commissioned by a vote of Congress. The history of Kossuth's efforts and sacrifices in behalf of his country's freedom, and the story of his sufferings while an exile and prisoner in a strange land, are doubtless familiar to many of our readers. It was natural that the American people, so fond of liberty, should look forward to the advent of the patriot and hero with no ordinary anticipations. In consequence of a change of arrangements, Governor Kossuth sailed from Gibraltar to England in another vessel, and after passing a month amid the hospitalities of the English, re-embarked in a steamship, and arrived at New York on the morning of the 5th of December. The whole population of the city seems carried away with enthusiasm and excitement. The roar of cannon, and the huzzas of immense multitudes, honor his disembarkation at Castle Garden; and the subsequent military and civic parade through the great thoroughfare of the metropolis, amid decorations of surpassing magnificence, exceeded any former demonstration of respect for lofty patriotism and heroic virtues. Numerous banquets were afterwards given in honour of the city's distinguished guest, and, on each of these occasions, Kossuth—perhaps the greatest of living orators—poured forth those magnificent strains of glowing eloquence which, even in the mere perusal, awaken ever-

powering emotions of delight and admiration. Remaining a short time at New York, Kossuth repaired to Washington, and was formally introduced to Congress and the President. He afterwards visited Harrisburg, Pittsburg, Cincinnati, and the principal cities of the West, receiving everywhere proofs of the warmest sympathy and respect of the people. Since his arrival, and the delivery of his stirring appeals in behalf of his down-trodden country, the question whether, in cases like that of Hungary, our government should interfere with the efforts of the despots to prevent the attainment of liberty, has been discussed with the deepest interest, but has not yet been settled to the satisfaction of all parties. Upon the whole, however, the neutral policy recommended by Washington has been pursued by the government; yet large contributions of money and arms were placed at the disposal of Kossuth by individuals or companies acting in the capacity of private citizens. After remaining in the United States several months, Kossuth returned to England.



On the 29th of July, 1852, the Hon. Henry Clay died at Washington, in the 76th year of his age. He was at the time a member of the United States Senate from the State of Kentucky. The intelligence that the great statesman, the incomparable orator, and the incorruptible patriot was no more, was everywhere followed by demonstrations of unaffected grief, and tokens of the deepest respect for the memory of one who, by his talents, his zeal, and his long and active services, had contributed so much to the peace and prosperity of his country. It was felt that the nation had lost one of its ablest men.

Mr. Clay was born on the 12th. of April, 1777, in a portion of Hanover county, Virginia, familiarly known as the "Slashes." He was the fifth son of a Baptist clergyman, who is said to have preached with great acceptance in the district above mentioned. His father dying when he had attained his fifth year, he was left to the care of his mother, a woman of strong intellect, and every way qualified to superintend his education. But the means afforded for this purpose were very limited, and even these he did not enjoy without interruption. The narrow circumstances of the family made it necessary for him to devote much time to manual employments. "He was no stranger," says his biographer, "to the uses of the plough, the spade, and the hoe." By his frequent visits to a neighbouring gristmill, on Pamunkey river, he acquired the title "Mill-boy



HENRY CLAY.

of the Slashes." In 1792, his mother was married to Mr. Henry Watkins, and removed to Woodford county, Kentucky, with all her children, except Henry and his eldest brother. At the age of four teen, we find him in a small drug store, kept by Richard Denny, in Richmond, Virginia. Soon after this, he entered the office of Peter Tinsley, clerk of the High Court of Chancery.

The venerable Chancellor Wythe, a gentleman of great worth and profound learning, attracted by his habits and appearance, gave him the benefit of his instructions, and made him his amanuensis. In 1796, he left the office of Mr. Tinsley, and went to reside with Robert Brooke, Esq., attorney-general of Virginia. He now, with great success, availed himself of the opportunity to prosecute the study of law to greater advantage than before. Near the close of 1797, he was licensed to practice at the bar by the judges of the Virginia Court of Appeals. His talents, acquirements, and eloquence soon placed him in the first rank as an advocate, and procured for him continual professional employment. By the qualities

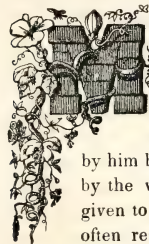
of his mind and heart, he was well fitted to conduct criminal cases, and it is justly regarded as a remarkable fact that, although many of these were intrusted to his care, he was never in a single instance defeated. One remarkable example may be cited in proof of his wonderful abilities. Two Germans, father and son, were indicted for murder, and were tried in Harrison county. The act of killing was proved by clear and strong evidence; and it was not only considered a case of murder, but a very aggravated one. The trial continued five days, at the close of which he addressed the jury in the most eloquent and impassioned manner. They were so touched by his pathetic appeals that they gave a verdict of manslaughter only. After another hard day's struggle, he procured an arrest of judgment, by which his clients were set at liberty. They expressed their gratitude to their deliverer in the most glowing terms; but an old ill-favoured woman, the wife of one of them, and mother of the other, returned her thanks in a different manner. Throwing her arms around Mr. Clay's neck, she repeatedly kissed him in the presence of the court and spectators. "Respecting her feelings," says one of his best biographers, "he did not attempt to repulse her, but submitted to her caresses with such grace and dignity as to elicit outbursts of applause."



HE career of Mr. Clay as a politician commenced as far back as 1797. His early efforts in this new field sufficiently evince his philanthropy and patriotism. His mind was of a strong cast, and, accustomed from early years to do its own thinking, it made him a man of unbending opinions. He never expressed himself on any great question until he had fully discussed the subject in all its bearings in his own mind, and his conclusions were unalterable. Kind in heart, courteous in his manners, eloquent in debate, beloved at his domestic fireside, and honored in the national councils, he became one of the greatest of American statesmen.

The odious Alien and Sedition Laws, enacted in 1798 and 1799, found in him one of their most formidable opponents. On one occasion, the people had assembled in a grove near Lexington to listen to a debate between the friends and enemies of these laws. They were first addressed by Mr. George Nicholas, an opponent of

the laws, in a vigorous, logical, and effective speech, by which the people were wound up to the highest degree of enthusiasm. The speech of Mr. Clay, who followed him, seems to have been a most wonderful example of all the higher attributes of eloquence. Mr. William Murray next addressed the people in favour of the laws; but without effect, so clearly had their evil tendency been exposed by Mr. Clay. He would not have been allowed to proceed, had not the speakers before him urgently asked for permission. When another reply was attempted, the people could be restrained no longer. They rush furiously towards the place occupied by the speaker who is compelled to retreat in haste to save himself from personal violence. Seizing Clay and Nicholas, they bear them upon their shoulders to a carriage, and, with enthusiastic cheers, draw them through the streets of Lexington.



MR. CLAY'S love of liberty was again evinced, at a later period, by his efforts in behalf of struggling Greece, and still later by the interest which he took in the cause of South American independence. A bill prohibiting "our citizens to sell vessels of war to subjects of a foreign power," was opposed by him because, however disguised, it would be understood by the world as a law to discountenance any aid being given to the South American patriots. His speeches were often read at the head of the South American armies, and always served to increase the zeal and courage of the soldiers.

About the beginning of the year 1810, his attention was turned to the subject of domestic manufactures. From that time, he continued to advocate the doctrine that encouragement and protection should be extended by the general government to American industry, and if not the sole framer, was ever regarded as the father, and as the ablest champion of what is called the American System.

The Eleventh Congress commenced its session on the 3d of December, 1810. When the subject of rechartering the United States Bank was brought forward for discussion, Mr. Clay was opposed to a recharter of that institution. The dangerous tendency, as well as unconstitutionality of the measure, were shown by him in the most lucid and convincing manner. His powerful arguments prevailed, and the charter was not renewed.



S the aggressions of Great Britain upon our commerce, and her impressment of our seamen into her service on suspicion that they were British subjects, could no longer be endured with either safety or honour, Mr. Clay strongly advocated a declaration of war against that power. The declaration was made on the 18th of June, 1812. His speech on the bill to increase the army, delivered in the House of Representatives, January 8, 1813, showed his wonderful control over the feelings of his audience. A correct idea of its effect cannot be obtained by merely reading it. The pathetic effect of that part which relates to the imprisonment of American seamen, it is impossible to describe. Men of both political parties, the friends and the foes of the orator, forgot their antipathies, and wept together. He concluded by saying, "We are told that England is a proud and lofty nation, which, disdaining to wait for danger, meets it half way. Haughty as she is, we once triumphed over her, and if we do not listen to the counsels of timidity and despair, we shall again prevail. In such a cause, with the aid of Providence, we must come out crowned with success; but if we fail, let us fail like men, lash ourselves to our gallant tars, and expire together in one common struggle, fighting for FREE TRADE AND SEAMANS' RIGHTS."

The question of the admission of Missouri to the Union—a question embarrassed by the subject of slavery, created, in and out of Congress, an excitement perhaps unequalled in the political history of the country. The distracting question was finally settled, and the excitement allayed, principally by the skill and untiring exertions of Henry Clay. His services in settling the fearful controversy between South Carolina and the federal government, have already been treated of in a former chapter. [See p. 527.]

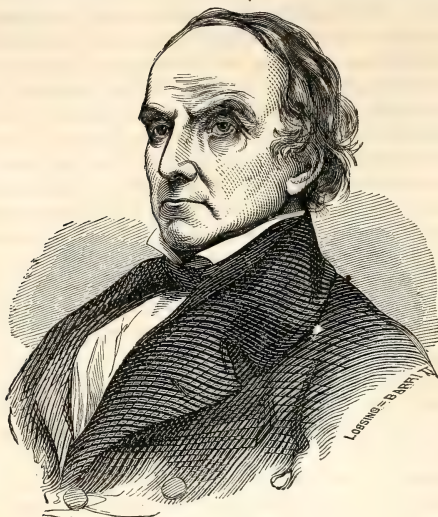
The personal appearance of Mr. Clay is said to have been imposing, yet highly prepossessing. He was tall, somewhat thin, but very muscular. His carriage was easy and graceful, and his manners dignified, cordial, and kind, without the slightest appearance of haughtiness. His open and expressive countenance mirrored faithfully the feelings of his soul. His eyes were small, and of a blue or dark gray colour. His forehead was broad and high. His mouth was large, but strongly indicative of talent and energy. The tones of his voice were deep and silvery, and its modulation was exquisite. As an orator, his claim to the highest rank is un-

questionable. His control over his auditory, and his power of enchaining their attention, were truly astonishing. His delivery was a perfect model of elocution. A gentleman who witnessed one of his great efforts, says, "Every muscle of the orator's face was at work; his whole body seemed agitated, as if each part were instinct with a separate life; and his small white hand, with its blue veins apparently distended almost to bursting, moved gracefully, but with all the energy of rapid and vehement gesture. The appearance of the speaker seemed that of a pure intellect, wrought up to its mightiest energies, and brightly glowing through the thin and transparent veil of flesh that enrobed it." Whatever may be thought of Mr. Clay's political views, it is evident that benevolence, sincerity, and patriotism, were prominent features of his character.



F all those great statesmen and brilliant orators who, for the last twenty years, have taken the lead in our national legislature, there were *three* to whom common consent, it would seem, has assigned a pre-eminence above all others. Two of these had now passed away; the third, and perhaps the greatest, was soon to follow his distinguished associates. The country was soon to lose the mightiest intellect that had ever watched over its interests and destinies. On Sunday morning, October 24, 1852, Daniel Webster died at his residence in Marshfield, Massachusetts, in the 71st year of his age. Retiring to his favourite country-seat, in order to recover his energies, which had been depressed by official labour and temporary indisposition, he was soon violently attacked with disease which, after a brief course, terminated in death. At the time of his decease, he was a member of the Cabinet, in which he occupied the position of Secretary of State.

The family of Daniel Webster was of Scottish origin, but passed some time in England before the final emigration. Thomas Webster was settled at Hampton, on the coast of New Hampshire, as far back as 1636. Noah Webster, the learned philologist and lexicographer, was of a collateral branch of the family. Ebenezer Webster, the father of the orator, was a man of imposing appearance, and is described as erect, six feet in height, and broad and full in the chest, with a military air acquired from his long service in the wars. Early in life, he enlisted as a common soldier in a company of rangers. The service of the rangers, it is well known, were of great import-



DANIEL WEBSTER

ance in the French and Indian wars. He followed Sir Jeffrey Amherst in the invasion of Canada, gained the good will of his superior officers by his fidelity and bravery, and was advanced to the rank of captain before the termination of the war. After the close of the contest, Colonel Stevens, with some of his neighbours, procured of Benning Wentworth, the royal governor of New Hampshire, a grant of the town of Salisbury. Captain Webster was one of the settlers of the newly-granted township, and received an allotment in its northern portion. Soon after his settlement in Salisbury, he married Abigail Eastman, his second wife, and the mother of Ezekiel and Daniel Webster, the only sons by his second marriage. He built a frame house near the log cabin which, it seems, he had previously inhabited. In this house, Daniel Webster was born on the 18th of January, 1782. In the Revolutionary War, not yet fully terminated, Captain Webster had served with distinction. He was at the battle of White Plains, acted as major under Stark at Bennington, and contributed his share to the success of the American commander.

Mr. Webster's early opportunities for acquiring an education were

very limited. The district school of those days, when compared with those of the present time, was very defective. His first master was Thomas Chase, his second was James Tappan, who, it would seem from a letter of Mr. Webster, was living in Gloucester, Mass., as late as the early part of 1851. Some benefit was derived from a small library founded in Salisbury by his father, in conjunction with the clergyman, and Mr. Thomson, the lawyer of the place. In May, 1796, he entered the Academy at Exeter. The strength of his mental powers was even then apparent to an attentive observer. On entering the Academy, he was placed in the lowest class, consisting of a few boys of no great brightness of intellect. At the end of a month, after morning recitations, "Webster," says Mr. Emery, their instructor, "you will pass into the other room and join a higher class;" adding, "Boys, you will take your final leave of Webster, you will never see him again."

In February, 1797, he was placed under the care of the Rev. Samuel Wood, minister in the neighbouring town of Boscawen. On their way to Mr. Wood's, his father first disclosed to him his intention of sending him to college. "I remember," says Mr. Webster, "the very hill which we were ascending, through deep snows, in a New England sleigh, when my father made known this purpose to me. I could not speak. How could he, I thought, with so large a family, and in such narrow circumstances, think of incurring so great an expense for me. A warm glow ran all over me, and I laid my head on my father's shoulder and wept."



He completed his preparation for college with Mr. Wood. Here, too, he laid the foundation of his knowledge of the ancient classics, especially the Roman—a knowledge which he greatly increased in college, and preserved, during his active life, by constant recurrence to the great models of antiquity. He entered Dartmouth College in 1797. In 1801, he commenced the study of law with Mr. Thompson, the next-door neighbour of his father. He remained until it became necessary to do something to obtain a little money. In this emergency, application was made to him to take charge of an academy at Fryeburgh, in Maine. In September, 1802, he returned to the office of Mr. Thompson. In July, 1804, he resided in Boston, and before commencing the practice of law, pursued his studies for six or eight months in the office of the Hon.

Christopher Gore, an eminent lawyer and statesman, distinguished for his sound judgment, practical good sense, and rare intellectual qualities. This golden opportunity was not thrown away upon Mr. Webster

When about to be admitted to practice in the Suffolk Court of Common Pleas, he was offered the vacant clerkship in the Court of Common Pleas in the county of Hillsborough, N.H. The fees of the office were about \$1500 a year. They would have afforded a certain support in place of a doubtful prospect, and would have enabled him at once to bring comfort into his father's family. He was willing to sacrifice his hopes of future eminence to the welfare of those so dear; but Mr. Gore, unwilling to consent to such a loss, succeeded in persuading him to refuse the office. In the spring of 1805, young Webster was admitted to the practice of law in the Court of Common Pleas for Suffolk county, Massachusetts. His father was now associate judge in the Court of Common Pleas in Hillsborough county, New Hampshire. Judge Webster lived but a year after this—long enough, however, to hear his son's first argument in court, and to be gratified by the cheering indications of his future success. After practising a short time at Boscawen, our young lawyer removed to Portsmouth, where he continued the business of his profession for nine years. During this period, he devoted himself, without remission, to the study and practice of law. He seems to have risen almost immediately to the head of his profession in that part of the country.



On November, 1812, he was elected to Congress, and took his seat at the first session of the Thirteenth Congress—an extra session called in May, 1813. Here he rose at once to an equality with the most distinguished members. His first speech, delivered on the 10th of June, 1813, took the House by surprise. Men left their seats in order to see the speaker face to face, and sat down, or stood on the floor, fronting him. All listen, in almost breathless silence, to the whole speech, which, being over, many persons, among whom are some who widely dissent from his views, warmly compliment and congratulate the orator.

The project for a Bank of the United States—a project introduced about this time into the House, was opposed by Mr. Webster, Calhoun, and Lowndes, mainly on the ground that, to enable the bank

to exist under the conditions specified, it was relieved from the necessity of redeeming its notes in specie; in other words, it was an arrangement to issue an irredeemable paper currency. During the greater part of the year 1815, Mr. Webster was busily engaged in the practice of law. Though he had his share of employment in New Hampshire, it did not furnish an adequate support for his increasing family. The destruction of his house, furniture, and library, with many of his manuscripts, by the great fire at Portsmouth, in December, 1813, rendered his exertions necessary in order to meet his increasing expenses. In the Fourteenth Congress, he was instrumental in procuring the passage of a resolution which restored o a sound basis the currency of the country.

That Mr. Webster is entitled to rank with the greatest orators either of ancient or modern times, will never be successfully disputed. His speech in reply to Mr. Hayne, delivered in the Senate chamber of the United States, January 26, 1830, is generally considered as his greatest effort. The accounts which writers have given of the eloquence of Demosthenes, Cicero, Sheridan, Phillips, Henry, and Ames, were stripped of their seeming extravagance; and the wonderful and soul-subduing effects of their oratory were again renewed. "Of the effectiveness of Mr. Webster's manner in many parts," says Mr. Everett, "it is impossible to give any one not present the faintest idea. It has been my fortune to hear some of the ablest speeches of the greatest living orators on both sides of the water, but I must confess I never heard any thing which so completely realized my conception of what Demosthenes was when he delivered the Oration for the Crown."



And he went through the magnificent peroration, his countenance glowed as if he were inspired. His voice, exerted to its utmost power, penetrates every recess of the Senate, and even the ante-rooms and stairways, as he pronounces, in deepest tones of pathos, these words of solemn significance: "When my eyes shall be turned to behold, for the last time, the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining upon the broken and dishonoured fragments of a once glorious Union; on States dissevered, discordant, belligerent; on a land rent with civil feuds, or drenched, it may be, in fraternal blood! Let their last feeble and lingering glance rather behold the gorgeous ensign of the republic, now known and honoured throughout the earth, still full

high advanced, its arms and trophies streaming in their original lustre, not a stripe erased or polluted, nor a single star obscured, bearing for its motto no such miserable interrogatory as, 'What is all this worth?' nor those other words of delusion and folly, 'Liberty first and Union afterwards;' but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over the sea and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment, dear to every American heart—LIBERTY AND UNION, NOW AND FOREVER, ONE AND INSEPARABLE!"

The last words of the lamented Webster are contained in the exclamation, "I still live!" In their noblest sense, how emphatic are these words! how forcible, how eloquent, how impressive, and how true! Yes, indeed, he still lives, the mightiest of our mighty intellects!—lives in the glowing words of his own immortal pages—lives, and will live, in the gratitude and admiration of mankind to the latest generations! Clay, Calhoun, Webster—immortal and glorious triumvirate! worthy of being named with Chatham, Cicero, and Demosthenes—your eloquent voices are hushed in death; but the memory and benefits of your services and patriotism "still live," and, let us hope, will live forever





HON. FRANKLIN PIERCE.

CHAPTER LIV.

ADMINISTRATION OF FRANKLIN PIERCE.



HE approaching expiration of Mr. Fillmore's term of service turned the attention of the people to the election of his successor, and induced a preparation for one of those periodical exercises of popular power which form the distinguishing features of this free and happy republic. The first nomination of a candidate was made by the democratic party, assembled in national convention at Baltimore, in June, 1852. It was with great difficulty, and after a protracted session, that a candidate could be agreed upon, in consequence of the number of prominent statesmen whose names were presented, and whose pretensions were adhered to with great tenacity by their respective supporters. Among them were Lewis Cass, of Michigan, William L. Marcy, of New York, James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, General Butler, of Kentucky, and General Houston, of Texas—all men of great ability and experience, and of undoubted fidelity to the party; men, too, some of whom had conferred distinguished honor on the American name abroad by their brilliant diplomacy, and at home had acquired a high national repu-

tation by their civil and military services. Being unable to unite upon either of these, it was finally found advisable to take up a new name, and, on the forty-ninth ballot, a very nearly unanimous selection was made in the person of General FRANKLIN PIERCE, of New Hampshire—the ballots being 283 for Pierce, 1 for Marcy, 2 for Buchanan, and 2 for Cass. With much greater facility, Col. WM. R. KING, of Alabama, formerly U. S. Senator from that State, and at the time Acting-President of the U. S. Senate, was selected as the candidate for Vice-President.



THE Whig Convention followed shortly after, in the same month, in Baltimore, and experienced similar difficulty in arriving at a choice of a candidate. The wishes of a large majority of the party were very nearly divided between a re-nomination of Mr Fillmore and the selection of Gen. Winfield Scott; while a small portion of the delegates favoured the nomination of Mr. Webster. On the fifty-third ballot, the choice, by a small majority of votes, fell upon General SCOTT; and WM. A. GRAHAM, of North Carolina, was nominated for the Vice Presidency.

The Free-Soil party put forth, as their presidential candidate, the Hon. JOHN P. HALE, of New Hampshire, and the ultra Anti-Slavery party also organized under distinct leaders.

Thus marshalled, the various parties engaged in the political contest. After an animated canvass, the election was held simultaneously in every State of the Union, on Tuesday, the 2d day of November, and resulted in favour of the democratic candidates. The electoral college consisted of 296 members, of which 254 were for Franklin Pierce, and 42 for Winfield Scott. By States, Gen. Pierce received the votes of 27 States, and Gen. Scott of 4. No more decisive election has been held in this country of late years. The second election of Gen. Jackson, in 1832, and the election of Gen. Harrison, in 1840, are the nearest approaches to it in point of unanimity.

Not long before his inauguration, the family of the President elect was called upon to submit to a most awful and heart-rending dispensation of Providence. By one of those fearful railroad accidents, of late quite too common in this country, they were summoned to weep over the remains of a beloved son, a youth of the most promising talents, and, for many reasons, an object of particular affection. The

people throughout the Union, and others elsewhere, were deeply affected by this event, and shared sincerely in the sorrows of the afflicted family.



T is perhaps unnecessary to attempt an analysis of the differences which existed between the two leading parties of the country at this time, or of the causes which led to the political result just recorded. Really, there would seem to have been few questions at issue leading to partisan division or calling for partisan support. On the question of the compromise measures, so called, including the Fugitive Slave Law, intended as a settlement of the late sectional disputes which agitated the country, both parties were agreed, and so distinctly set forth in their respective resolutions, or "platforms," adopted in convention. Indeed, adherence to these measures was considered a *sine qua non* of successful political action, and no candidate could have received a nomination from either party who was known to be opposed to them. The Bank and Tariff issues, the former long "obsolete," and the latter practically useless, as public opinion ran, no longer entered into the canvass; or the latter, if at all, to a very limited degree. On the subject of Internal Improvements, the old party landmarks were still perceptible, it is true; but there was little or no effort to make political capital out of this question. Even on the score of military popularity, which heretofore is supposed to have exercised a preponderating influence in favour of particular candidates, both parties were very nearly matched—each candidate being possessed of a military reputation; the advantage indeed being with the candidate of the party which was destined to defeat, whose military laurels had been long worn, having been won in many a hard-fought battle and brilliant achievement in the service of his country. The election, in its result, seems rather to have been determined by other causes than these. Popular dissatisfaction with the policy of the existing whig administration in regard to the foreign relations of the country—prejudice created by an alleged prodigality in the use of the public funds, and indiscretion in the allowance of doubtful claims—together with that periodical desire of change which to a marked degree affects the popular mind, and characterizes our national elections; these, with other causes even less directly related to the usual political issues, appear to have led to the success of the democratic party. Whatever of justice there

may have been in the above specified charges, as a whole it cannot be denied that President Fillmore secured to himself a large share of popular respect, and retired from office having earned the reputation of a discreet and able executive chief.



RANKLIN PIERCE, thus virtually President-elect of the United States, was born, of revolutionary ancestors, in the town of Hillsborough, New Hampshire, on the 23d day of November, 1804; he was therefore 48 years of age at the time of his election. Having served his native State with fidelity and reputation in various capacities, he was in the summer of 1833 elected to Congress, taking his seat in the house in December of the same year. In 1837, he was elected to the U. S. Senate. His congressional career, though comparatively brief, reflected credit upon his talents as a statesman and orator. In the important discussions which occupied the attention of Congress during this period, we find him taking a conspicuous part, and rendering an undeviating support to the measures of the party with which he was identified. He resigned his seat in the Senate before the expiration of the term for which he was elected, preferring the quietude of domestic and professional life to the turbulent arena of national politics at Washington. He also, for the same cause, refused the office of Attorney-General of the United States, which was proffered him by President Polk. The breaking out of the Mexican War found him at home engaged in the avocations of a private citizen. When the call for volunteers was made, he immediately enlisted for the war, taking the field with the rank of brigadier-general, in connection with the Ninth, or New England Regiment, which during the contest so signalized itself for its gallant deeds. At the close of hostilities he resigned his commission, and returned to his former privacy in New Hampshire. The official reports of the war all bear honourable testimony to the bravery and active military services of General Pierce; and it is not to be doubted that a recollection of his patriotic conduct in devoting himself to the service of his country in this emergency contributed materially to the creation of that popularity by which he was eventually enabled to attain to the highest office in the gift of the people.

Mr. KING, the successful candidate for the Vice-Presidency, on the same ticket with Mr. Pierce, had long acquired a national

reputation, having been more than thirty years in the public service and for many years the presiding officer of the U. S. Senate.

On the 9th of February, 1853, the votes of the Electoral College were counted and declared in Congress, and the election of the successful candidates officially announced; and on the ensuing 4th of March Mr. Pierce was publicly inaugurated in Washington, and took the oath of office as President of the United States.

His inaugural address on the occasion was anxiously looked for, and received with general satisfaction by the people. So judicious and unexceptionable were its sentiments, and so truly American was it in character, that it met with nearly universal commendation from the press of all parties. It fully realized in its pledges and doctrines the expectations of the party instrumental in elevating him to power, and by its just and discreet tone conciliated, in a marked degree, the favour of the opposition.



HIS important paper, foreshadowing as it does the general policy of President Pierce's administration, and presenting the views and intentions of the government in relation to some of the most important subjects connected with the welfare of the country, at an interesting juncture of its history, demands that we bestow upon it more than a cursory notice. We shall, therefore, proceed to speak of it in detail.

With an expression of thanks for the manifestation of the nation's confidence in his elevation to a position of so great responsibility—one not sought, but accepted in obedience to the popular will—he proceeds to speak of the country's unparalleled progression in territory, population, and wealth. The stars upon our banner have become nearly three-fold their original number, our densely populated possessions skirt the shores of the two great oceans, and yet, he adds, this vast increase of people and territory has not only shown itself compatible with the harmonious action of the States and the federal government in their respective constitutional spheres, but has afforded an additional guarantee of the strength and integrity of both. This noble result is to be attributed to the wisdom and energy of the early founders of the republic. They possessed a calm faith, springing from a clear view of the sources of power, in a government constituted like ours. They proved themselves equal to the solution of the great problem, to understand which their minds had been illuminated by the dawning

lights of the revolution. The object sought was not a thing dreamed of: it was a thing realized. They had exhibited not only the power to achieve, but what all history affirms to be so much more unusual the capacity to maintain. The oppressed throughout the world from that day to the present, have turned their eyes hitherward, not to find those lights extinguished, or to fear lest they should wane, but to be constantly cheered by their steady and increasing radiance. In this our country has, in the President's judgment, thus far fulfilled its highest duty to suffering humanity. It has spoken, and will continue to speak, not only by its words but by its acts, the language of sympathy and encouragement to those who earnestly listen to its tones, which pronounce for the largest rational liberty. But pre-eminently the power of our advocacy reposes in our example; though it should be remembered that no example can be powerful for lasting good, whatever apparent advantages may be gained, which is not based upon eternal principles of right and justice.



IN view of the past experience of the country, showing that its extension has not militated with its well-being, but, on the contrary, has but added to its strength and prosperity, the President declares that the policy of his administration will not be controlled by any timid forebodings of evil from a still farther expansion. And evidently having in his eye the acquisition of Cuba, proceeds to remark: "Indeed, it is not to be disguised that our attitude as a nation, and our position on the globe, render the acquisition of certain possessions not within our jurisdiction, eminently important for our protection, if not, in the future, essential for the preservation of the rights of commerce and the peace of the world. Should they be obtained, it will be through no grasping spirit, but with a view to obvious national interest and security, and in a manner entirely consistent with the strictest observance of national faith. We have nothing in our history or position to invite aggression; we have every thing to beckon us to the cultivation of the relations of peace and amity with all nations. Purposes, therefore, at once just and pacific, will be significantly marked in the conduct of our foreign affairs." He declares further, that no act within the legitimate scope of his constitutional control will be tolerated, on the part of any portion of our citizens, which cannot challenge a ready justification before the tribunal of the civilized world; and adds, that an administration would be un

worthy of confidence at home, or respect abroad, should it cease to be influenced by the conviction, that no apparent advantage can be purchased at a price so dear as that of national wrong or dishonour. These observations, so distinctly and significantly made, display the intentions of the administration in regard to the mode in which the acquisition of Cuba shall be made, should, during its term of office, such an acquisition ever be practicable. They preclude the idea of force and unjust seizure, or the supposition that any armed expedition from this country, having in view the conquest and subsequent annexation of Cuba, would meet with greater tolerance than under an administration more professedly conservative. The vague fears which may have been apprehended upon this subject, consequent upon the triumph of the party avowedly the fast friends of territorial extension, and particularly of Cuban annexation, have, therefore, by the declarations of President Pierce's Inaugural, been thoroughly dispelled. Cuba, if ever she becomes affiliated with this country, must become so under circumstances perfectly consistent with our national faith and honour.



HE policy of this country, in the opinion of President Pierce, should be eminently peaceful, and, with the neighbouring nations upon our continent, we should cultivate kindly and fraternal relations. If we should open new channels of trade, and create additional facilities for friendly intercourse, the benefits realized will be open to all. With the politics of Europe we have no connection, except as they appeal to our sympathies in the cause of human freedom and universal advancement; but the vast interests of commerce are common to all mankind.

The President proceeds to lay down the ground in regard to another important subject affecting the rights and interests of American citizens, viz.: the degree of protection to be extended over them by the government, in whatever part of the world they may happen to be. This question, important at all times, has, in consequence of recent events, been made to assume an unusual interest. Shall the American citizen, like the Roman of old, feel that his citizenship shall be a broad and sufficient shield, protecting him from injustice and wrong wherever he may go? that his rights shall be respected, and his life and liberty be safe, in any part of the civilized world? The answer is, Yes the honour of the country demands that this

doctrine be distinctly understood, and strictly enforced. The decisive language which follows relating to this point, elicited the warm approval of the whole country, and constituted one of the most brilliant passages of the President's Inaugural: "The rights which belong to us as a nation are not alone to be regarded, but those which pertain to every citizen in his individual capacity, at home and abroad, must be sacredly maintained. So long as he can discern every star in its place upon that ensign, without wealth to purchase for him preferment or title to secure for him place, it will be his privilege, and must be his acknowledged right, to stand unabashed even in the presence of princes, with a proud consciousness that he is himself one of a nation of sovereigns, and that he cannot, in a legitimate pursuit, wander so far from home, that the agent whom he shall leave behind in the place which I now occupy, will not see that no rude hand of power, or tyrannical passion, is laid upon him with impunity. He must realize, that upon every sea and on every soil where our enterprise may rightfully seek the protection of our flag, American citizenship is an inviolable panoply for the security of American rights."



UPON another subject of equal importance, and which has at different periods called forth an expression of the sentiments of the American people, namely, the doctrine first laid down by Mr. Monroe, in opposition to European colonization upon this continent, the President declares, that "it can hardly be necessary to reaffirm a principle which should now be regarded as fundamental. The rights, security, and repose of this confederacy, reject the idea of interference or colonization on this side of the ocean by any foreign power, beyond present jurisdiction, as utterly inadmissible." The late events connected with British interference in portions of Central America, and the attempt to set up a sort of protectorate over the Mosquito country, so called, seem to have revived public interest in this question, and to have suggested the emphatic language of the President. The subject has given rise to very important debates in Congress, to which we may have occasion to refer in future pages.

Passing from the foreign to the domestic policy of the country, the views of the Inaugural are worthy of consideration. Upon the subject of the bestowal of Executive patronage, the doctrine held is, that while it cannot be reasonably expected that the administration

will be so regardless of its responsibility, and of the obvious elements of success, as to retain persons known to be opposed to it in positions which require not only severe labor, but cordial co-operation, yet no appointments shall be made which do not contemplate an efficient discharge of duty and the best interests of the country. Against the dangers of an undue concentration of power in the general government, the President is also very explicit. The great scheme of our constitutional liberty rests upon a proper distribution of power between the State and federal authorities; and experience has shown that the harmony and happiness of our people must depend upon a just discrimination between the separate rights and responsibilities of the States, and our common rights and obligations under the general government. If the federal government will confine itself to the exercise of powers clearly granted by the constitution, it can hardly happen that its action upon any question should endanger the institutions of the States, or interfere with their right to manage matters strictly domestic according to the will of their own people.



THE President proceeds to express his entire devotion to the Union, which, as it has been the source, under Providence, of our prosperity to this time, so it is the surest pledge of a continuance of the blessings we have enjoyed, and which we are sacredly bound to transmit undiminished to our children.

To every theory of society or government, whether the offspring of feverish ambition or of morbid enthusiasm, calculated to dissolve the bonds of law and affection which unite us, he shall interpose a ready and stern resistance. He believes that involuntary servitude, as it exists in different States of this confederacy is recognized by the Constitution; that it stands like any other admitted right, and that the States where it exists are entitled to efficient remedies to enforce the constitutional remedies. He holds, therefore, that the measures of 1850, commonly called the "compromise measures," are strictly constitutional, and to be unhesitatingly carried into effect; and that the laws to enforce them should be respected and obeyed, not with a reluctance encouraged by abstract opinions as to their propriety in a different state of society, but cheerfully, and according to the decisions of the tribunal to which their exposition belongs. Thus warning against disunion, and appealing to the moderation and sense of justice of all

classes of our citizens, the Inaugural closes with the hope, most eloquently expressed, that the kind Providence which smiled upon our fathers, may enable their children to preserve the blessings they have inherited.

The President, on the 7th of March, submitted the names of the persons constituting his cabinet to the Senate, assembled in extra session, which immediately confirmed the nominations, as follows :

- For Secretary of State,.....WM. L. MARCY, of New York.
- " Secretary of the Treasury,.....JAMES GUTHRIE, of Kentucky.
- " Secretary of the Interior,... ..ROBERT McCLELLAND, of Michigan.
- " Secretary of War,.....JEFFERSON DAVIS, of Mississippi.
- " Secretary of the Navy,.....JAMES C. DOBBIN, of North Carolina.
- " Postmaster-General,JAMES CAMPBELL, of Pennsylvania.
- " Attorney-General,CALEB CUSHING, of Massachusetts.

These are all gentlemen of ability and experience in statesmanship. Mr. Marcy was a member of President Polk's cabinet, holding the position of Secretary of War, and distinguishing himself in his management of that department during the combat with Mexico. He was also, formerly, Governor of the State of New York. Mr. Guthrie is a distinguished lawyer, and experienced as a politician. Mr. McClelland was former Governor of Michigan, and has served in Congress. General Davis took an active part in the Mexican War, and has also been a member of Congress. Mr. Dobbin was a member of the 29th Congress. Mr. Campbell was a leading politician and Attorney-General of the State of Pennsylvania. Gen. Cushing is distinguished for his diplomacy as Chinese Commissioner, and his services during the Mexican War.

Of the subsequent appointments by the President during the year the following list embraces the more important foreign officials :

MINISTERS PLENIPOTENTIARY.

- JAMES BUCHANAN, of Pennsylvania, to Great Britain.
- THOMAS H. SEYMOUR, of Connecticut, to Russia.
- JOHN Y. MASON, of Virginia, to France.
- JAMES GADSDEN, of South Carolina, to Mexico.
- PIERRE A. SOULÉ, of Louisiana, to Spain.
- PETER D. VROOM, of New Jersey, to Prussia.
- OLON BORLAND, of Arkansas, to Central America.
- WM. TROUSDALE, of Tennessee, to Brazil.
- SAMUEL MEDARY, of Ohio, to Chili.
- JOHN R. CLAY, of Kentucky, to Peru.
- THEODORE S. FAY, Minister Resident in Switzerland.

CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES.

J. J. SEIBELS, of Ala., for Belgium.

AUGUSTE BELMONT, of New York, for Netherlands.

RICHARD K. MEADE, of Virginia, for Sardinia.

ROBERT DALE OWEN, of Indiana, for the Two Sicilies.

HENRY R. JACKSON, of Georgia, for Austria.

HENRY BEDINGER, of Virginia, for Denmark.

WM. H. BISSELL, of Illinois, for Buenos Ayres.

JAMES S. GREEN, of Mobile, for New Grenada.

SHELTON F. LEAKE, of Virginia, for Sandwich Islands.



AMONG the last acts of the previous session of Congress was the adoption of a resolution empowering the President to employ engineers to make explorations of the most practicable route for a railroad connecting the States with the Pacific shores, and appropriating the sum of \$150,000 for the survey. Accordingly, four expeditions were fitted out in the course of the year, under experienced officers, having in view this important object. Two other expeditions were also dispatched during the same period, by water, having other, but also important objects in view. The first sailed from New York on the 31st of May, under the command of Dr. Kane, in continuation of the search for Sir John Franklin; and the other sailed a few days later from Norfolk, under the command of Captain Ringgold, having for its object an exploration of the routes pursued by American vessels trading between San Francisco and China, and of the whaling grounds in the North Pacific.


The return of Santa Anna to power in the neighbouring republic of Mexico, in March, and his supposed feelings of hostility to the United States, taken in connection with the breaking out of a difficulty between the American Governor of New Mexico, Gen. Lane, and the Governor of the Mexican State of Chihuahua, for a time gave indications of another rupture between the two nations. It appears that a tract of country, known as the Mesilla Valley, about 175 miles by 40 in extent, and situate on the borders of New Mexico, though mutually claimed under the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo by both the United States and Mexico, had been assigned by the joint Boundary Commission to the latter country. This tract was, however, forcibly taken possession of by General Lane on the 13th of March, "to be held provisionally," as he declared, "until the ques

tion of boundary shall be determined between the United States and Mexico." The measure was resisted by the Governor of Chihuahua, and the territory claimed as belonging to that State. The question has occupied the attention of both governments concerned in its peaceful adjudication.



On the 18th of April, 1853, the Hon. William R. King, Vice-President of the United States, died at Cahawba, in Alabama. On the meeting of Congress, in December of the previous year, though in feeble health, he assumed his post as presiding officer of the Senate, a position he had filled during the previous administration. Increasing illness, however, compelled him to resign office, and in a letter dated December 20th, his intention was communicated to the Senate. He soon after set sail for the West Indies, in the hope of improving his health. By special resolution of Congress, he was permitted to take the oath of office as Vice-President of the United States during his absence; a ceremony which was performed on the 4th of March, near Matanzas, in Cuba, where he at the time was sojourning. Finding himself fast failing in health, in April he took passage in a United States vessel, and arrived at Mobile on the 12th of the month, where he was received with deep respect and mournful interest by his fellow-citizens. Journeying on to Cahawba, he was forced to his bed, and died the next day, surrounded by his family and friends. The intelligence was heard with profound regret throughout the country, and various official and spontaneous manifestations of public sorrow followed in honour of the deceased. A brief biographical sketch of this distinguished statesman will not be deemed inappropriate. William Rufus King was born in Sampson County, North Carolina, on the 7th of April, 1786; he was therefore 67 years of age when he died. After representing the Wilmington district, in North Carolina, several terms in the lower house of Congress, he changed his residence to Alabama, then a Territory. When Alabama came in as a State, in 1819, Mr. King was elected one of her U. S. Senators—a position he has continued to fill most of the time since, with distinction and much personal popularity. In 1844, he accepted the post of Minister to France, proffered by Mr. Tyler, whence he was recalled, at his own request, in 1846, having distinguished his mission by the success of his negotiations with the French government, which had contem-

plated uniting with Great Britain in a protest against the annexation of Texas to the Union. Upon the elevation of Mr. Fillmore to the presidency, in 1850, Mr. King, again in the Senate from Alabama, was chosen President *pro. tem.* of that body—a position he had held on several occasions before. His nomination and election to the vice-presidency, as the candidate of the democratic party, in 1852, was the last and highest honour to which he attained; and it seemed a matter of deep regret that he could not have lived to enjoy a position so meetly the reward of a long life devoted to the interests of his country. Mr. King is the third Vice-President who has died in office. The two others were George Clinton, who died in April, 1812, and Elbridge Gerry, who died in November, 1814.



THE Great Exhibition of the World's Industry at London, in 1851, led to the determination among a number of the prominent citizens of New York to get up a similar enterprise in this country; and a company for that purpose was organized, under a charter from the State of New York, granted in March, 1852. Measures were then immediately taken to enlist the people of the various States in the undertaking, and also to procure the co-operation of foreign countries, by forwarding for exhibition specimens of the industry of their respective nations. The enterprise was of a purely private character, unlike the British Exhibition, which was national in its character, and supported by the influence and resources of the government. The only aid which the American enterprise has received from our government, is the permission to regard their building as a bonded warehouse, wherein the foreign articles may be introduced duty free while on exhibition. The undertaking, from its inception, was prosecuted with vigour, and, despite a variety of obstacles to be overcome, the edifice for the designed object was in readiness for use, and the Exhibition itself inaugurated on the 14th of July, 1853.

On that day, the American "CRYSTAL PALACE" was opened with appropriate ceremonies, in the presence of 8,000 persons assembled on the interesting occasion. The President of the United States, with a portion of his cabinet, honoured the inauguration with his presence. The exercises were impressive, and consisted of the reading of prayer by Bishop Wainwright, of New York, addressed by the President of the Association, Theodore Sedgwick, Esq., and

the President of the United States, and singing by the New York Sacred Harmonic Society.

In its main features this building, though inferior in size to that of the World's Exhibition in London, was universally confessed to be its superior in architectural beauty and general effect. It was, with the exception of the floor, entirely constructed of iron and glass, and in the form of a Greek cross, surmounted by a dome at the intersection. Each diameter of the cross was 365 feet long, and each arm of the cross, on the ground plan, 149 feet broad. On entering the building, the observer's eye was greeted by the vista of an arched nave, 41 feet wide, 67 feet high, and 365 long; and, on approaching the centre, he found himself under a dome 100 feet in diameter and 118 feet high. The building contained on the ground floor 111,000 square feet of space, and in its galleries, which were 54 feet wide, 62,000 square feet more, making a total area of 173,000 square feet, or about four acres surface for the purposes of exhibition. The iron used in the work was estimated at about 1,250 tons; the glass at 39,000 square feet.

The great increase of the means of intercommunication by railroads, and the consequent public and private advantage accruing therefrom to the country, have been in a measure counterbalanced by the large number of appalling disasters which have occurred, through unforeseen accident or the carelessness of the managers of the roads. A collision took place on the 23d of April, near Chicago, between the trains of the Central Michigan and Northern Indiana Railroads, by which twenty persons were killed, and a large number seriously injured. On the 2d of August an accident occurred on the Belvidere and Delaware Railroad, by the cars running off the track. Ten persons were killed outright, and a large number wounded. A little later in the month a collision occurred between the New York and Philadelphia trains, near Amboy, by which nearly thirty persons were injured, and several killed. On the 12th of the month a shocking disaster occurred on the Providence and Worcester Railroad. A train containing a large pleasure party came in collision with another, and some fifteen persons were killed, and a large number injured. But the most appalling accident of this nature occurred on the 6th of May, at Norwalk, in Connecticut, on the New York and New Haven Railroad. The drawbridge at Norwalk had been raised to permit a steamer to pass, and the locomotive, baggage car, and two passenger cars of the train from New York were precipitated into the river below, a distance of some twenty feet, and all the passengers buried beneath the water, near y all of whom were instantly killed or drowned

before assistance could reach them. It appeared from the subsequent evidence taken before a jury of inquest, that the draw of the bridge was open, and that the proper signal was given by the keeper of the bridge; but the engineer did not observe the signal, and proceeded with the train, realizing the fatal result that followed. More than fifty lives were lost, and as many more injured. The legislature of Connecticut, being in session at the time of the disaster, appointed a special committee to investigate the subject, and to report a more stringent public enactment for the regulation of railroads. A law of this nature was passed; and public attention having been generally aroused to the subject, similar action has been taken by the legislatures of other States. The following is believed to be a nearly accurate estimate of the number of railroad accidents which occurred in the United States in 1853.

<i>Months.</i>	<i>Number of Accidents.</i>	<i>Killed.</i>	<i>Wounded.</i>
January.....	12	25	40
February.....	6	6	11
March.....	14	54	62
April.....	4	25	54
May.....	8	54	49
June.....	5	6	19
July.....	11	8	22
August.....	5	29	76
Total to August 12,....	65	177	333

During the summer of 1854 the yellow fever visited the southern portion of the Union, more especially the city of New Orleans, and in '55 it concentrated its deadly power in and around the cities of Portsmouth and Norfolk, Virginia.

Its fatality exceeded that caused by the Asiatic cholera, when that terrible visitant swept over the country. In its virulence, it was never exceeded, particularly in the above-named cities, where, in the height of its fury, the deaths were from 200 to 300 per day.

Thousands who had passed unscathed through the epidemic in other seasons, took alarm and fled. But, notwithstanding the desertion of the population, the whole number of deaths in New Orleans was about 9000! and the burials in Portsmouth and Norfolk could not have been less.

Priest and people, physician and patient, nurse and sick, were thrown into one common grave. The formalities of burial were laid aside and scarcely were the semblances of respect maintained.

This lamentable state of things excited the sympathies of the nation, and the contributions for the relief of the sick and dying, and for the

helpless and orphan children, were large and cheerful. Although the law of self-preservation blockaded the avenues of departure, yet thousands found themselves welcomed to the hospitalities and comforts of the benevolent and generous-minded, who, braving the dangers of the contagion, allayed their fears, and supplied them with the necessities of life. Among those who volunteered their lives and property in this angelic mission, there were many instances of almost superhuman endurance and philanthropy. Around their memories cluster not only the gratitude of the saved, but the responsive approval of the good everywhere.

The leading events in the United States in 1854, were the final settlement of the Erie riots, the mission of Bedini, the Pope's Nuncio, the burning of the Great Republic, and the wreck of the steamer San Francisco, with 500 United States troops on board, 150 of whom were rescued by the ships *Three Bells*, *Kilby*, and *Antarctic*; also, the concession of Morse's telegraph patent, and the horrible loss of the Collins steamship *Arctic*, by collision with the French steamer *Vesta*, 40 miles from Cape Race, with the loss of 325 lives.

The leading events in 1855, were the Burlington and Gasconade Bridge Railroad disasters, and the return of Dr. Kane and his party, Oct. 11th. His reception was enthusiastic, and well calculated to encourage future navigators. The news of their arrival spread on lightning wings, and made the heart of the nation beat with gratitude. The fate of Dr. Franklin is still veiled in mystery, although there is little doubt that he perished a martyr to the progressive spirit of the age.

Among the acts of Congress in 1854 and '55, the most important were, the bill for the increase of the naval force by six first-class steam frigates, the award of \$100,000 to the officers and crews of the ships that relieved the San Francisco, the passage of the Nebraska and Kansas Bill, organizing those Territories, the Homestead and French Spoilation Bills, both of which were vetoed by the President. Probably no topic of public interest ever received more attention than the Nebraska and Kansas question.

In the succeeding year, serious difficulties took place in Kansas, in consequence of antagonistic attempts at adopting a State constitution; and the attention of Congress was engrossed with the exciting subject.

The President and Cabinet issued a proclamation against the fillibusters in California, negotiated with Mexico for the settlement of boundaries, the right of transfer, and secured a large area of territory, concluded the treaty with Japan, settled the Reciprocity treaty with Canada, and agreed with Russia on "Free ships, free goods." Imme-

diately connected with the affairs of government, was the destruction of Greytown, on the 13th of July, in consequence of the unredressed injuries and insults by its inhabitants to citizens of this country.

Early in the year 1853, the question of Russian right to the exclusive control of the Turkish dominions, made war between Turkey and Russia seem inevitable. While the dispute was raging, intelligence reached this country that the officers of an Austrian vessel of war, in the Sultan's dominions, had seized Martin Koszta, a Hungarian refugee, who visited this country with M. Kossuth, and had taken the initiatory steps to become a citizen of the United States. Capt. Ingraham, of the U. S. sloop-of-war *St. Louis*, promptly caused his release from the Austrian control, which, by the subsequent acts of our government, resulted in Koszta's restoration to liberty, and permission to return to this country.

The difficulties between the United States and Great Britain, ending in the dismissal of the British Consuls at Philadelphia and New York for enlisting recruits for the Crimea, is a sufficient apology for intruding here a brief sketch of the Russian War.

Notwithstanding the intervention of the Western Powers, the difficulty broke out in open war, and Russia took possession of the Turkish provinces on the Danube.

England and France took the part of the Sultan, and a formal declaration of war was made March 28, 1854. A powerful allied fleet was dispatched to the Baltic, and an expedition planned against the Crimea.

The allied armies landed Sept. 14, at Eupatoria, and on their way to Sebastopol, engaged in the deadly struggle of the Alma. Success followed, and the Allies, taking possession of Balaklava, besieged the stronghold, which was so bravely defended, that the siege was protracted and bloody beyond the record of military prowess. Sanguinary engagements took place frequently, and sometimes entire regiments were cut in pieces. On the 5th of November occurred the terrible encounter at Inkerman, with the loss of 3,000 English, 2,000 French and 10,000 Russians.

The reverses of the Allies, the general bad management of the expedition, and the great difficulty in transporting the necessities for the army, from Balaklava, to the troops, produced among the besiegers a wasting fatigue, privation, and exposure, and created such a strong public excitement at home against the policy of the War Department, that the ministry were compelled to resign, and a new cabinet was formed, under Lord Palmerston as Premier. Although fears had been

entertained for the health of the Czar, the news of his death, March 2d, 1855, came like an electric shock to the empire and the continent. Alexander succeeded him, not only in his place, but also in his policy. The siege of the Crimea continued, and on the 22d and 23d March, the Russians made a terrible sally, with a great loss to the Allies. The allied force constantly increased, and the troops awaited orders for a general assault. On the 23d of May, the French carried on a severe fight with nearly the entire garrison of Sebastopol. On the following day, the allied squadron entered the Straits of Kertch, and destroyed every thing within their reach. June 6, the bombardment of the city was commenced, and on the 18th, the combined forces assailed the Redan and Mamelon successfully. They were, however, compelled to retire, with a terrible loss. On the 16th of August was fought the battle of Traktir Bridge, with a loss of 20 officers and 5,000 men.

The bombardment continued with short intervals from the 1st of July till about noon of Sept. 8, when a general assault on the Malakoff, by the French, and on the Redan by the English; was made with triumphant success. The accompanying engraving represents the doomed city on the morning of its destruction. This was followed by the battle of Kars and Baider. Meanwhile, diplomacy was at work, and soon thereafter peace was concluded. Immediate preparations were made for the removal of the troops and *matériel* of war, and the definite evacuation of the Crimea took place July 5th. Thus closed one of the most warlike contests of the present century.

One of the acts of Congress, before adjourning on the 4th of March, 1855, was the conferring upon General Scott the title of Lieutenant-General. This unusual honor was, we need not remark, well deserved, and met with a general popular response of approbation.

The closing efforts of the administration of General Pierce were directed to a variety of topics connected with our foreign relations. These were under the able management of the Hon. William L. Marcy, Secretary of State, whose death, not long after his retirement from office, created a profound regret throughout the country. Of domestic matters, the difficulties in Kansas occupied almost exclusive attention, both in and out of Congress, which at its ensuing session, in 1855-56, was engaged in very earnest and protracted discussions of the subject. These discussions were continued at the session assembling in the fall. Meantime, the Presidential election had in a measure supplanted all other topics, and the various political parties were engrossed in active preparations for that important event.



MON. JAMES BUCHANAN.

CHAPTER LV.

ADMINISTRATION OF BUCHANAN.



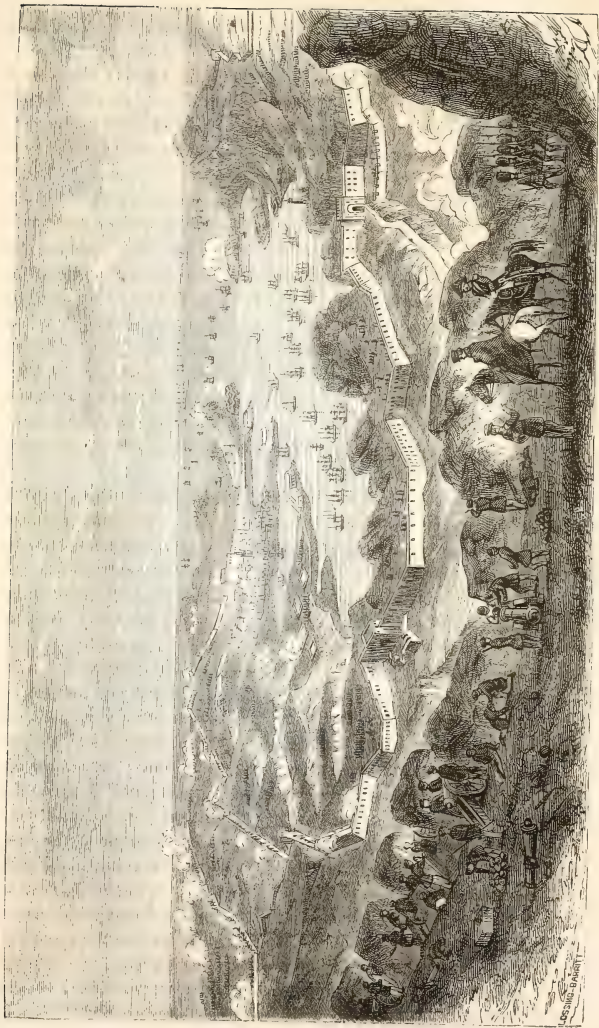
THE presidential election in the fall of 1856, resulted in the election of James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, for President, and John C. Breckenridge, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. The competitors for the Presidency were Mr. Buchanan, run by the Democratic party, Colonel John C. Fremont, by the Republican party, and ex-President Fillmore, by the American party; and the electoral vote was, for the successful candidate 174, for Fremont 114, for Fillmore 8.

The new administration came into power the 4th of March, 1857, with the following Cabinet:—Lewis Cass, of Michigan, Secretary of State; Howell Cobb, of Georgia, Secretary of Treasury; John B. Floyd, of Virginia, Secretary of War; Isaac Toucey, of Connecticut, Secretary of the Navy; Jacob Thompson, of Mississippi, Secretary of Interior; Judge Black, of Pennsylvania, Attorney-General; and Aaron V. Brown, of Tennessee, Postmaster-General. The inaugural address of Mr. Buchanan was well calculated to inspire confidence in the minds of the American people, in regard to the wisdom and justice of his administration; it was not, however, until the presentation of his regular message to Congress, on its convening in the following December, that a full exposition of his views could be obtained on the great questions of public interest occupying the attention of the na-

tion. Of the most prominent measures of his administration, we shall briefly speak in this chapter.

Before the assemblage of Congress in 1857, the country was visited by an extensive and powerfully-felt financial revulsion. Its effects were experienced in every department of business; nor was the trouble confined to our own country, but throughout the commercial world a monetary panic almost simultaneously seized upon the public mind. Trade was destroyed, manufactures stopped, the banks throughout the country suspended specie payments, and universal gloom and stagnation of business ensued. An important share of the President's introductory message was devoted to a consideration of this state of things, and to a suggestion of measures for its relief. Nothing definite, however, was done by Congress upon the subject; and after a few months, there appearing to be no adequate cause for the panic, the public distrust began gradually to disappear. Renewed confidence and energy, in the succeeding year, resulted in a restoration of the general prosperity of the country, the financial depression necessitating, however, in the mean time, on the part of the government, measures of greater economy in the national expenditures.

The question of Kansas was, happily, disposed of during the year 1858. This exciting topic, involving the slavery and antislavery issue, had engrossed the attention of the country for two or three years previous, creating, not only in the territory itself, but throughout the Union, the most embittered state of feeling. It was the cause of lamentable scenes of violence among the contending factions in Kansas, and of a political rancor among parties in the nation seldom, if ever, before known. During the administration of Mr. Pierce, the difficulty had assumed an alarming magnitude, and it fell as a bequest to the administration of Mr. Buchanan. Governor after governor was sent to the territory, in the hope of allaying the angry passions of its divided inhabitants and of restoring peace and order. Each faction, with a State Constitution in its hands, was appealing to Congress for recognition and support. Investigating committees were commissioned to repair to that territory, and make report to Congress of the true condition of things. In the midst of the prevailing violence and general disregard of law, the military force of the government had to be called into exercise. While the right of popular sovereignty seemed to be with the supporters of the Topeka constitution, the party upholding and presenting the Lecompton constitution were, in the judgment of others, acting according to the strict interpretation of the law. Both constitutions were at different times presented to Congress;



VIEW OF SEBASTOPOL AT THE FINAL ASSAULT

and both were finally rejected ; or, rather, an act, called the English compromise, was passed, on the 4th of May, 1858, submitting the Le-compton constitution to a direct vote of the people of Kansas, and thus insuring its defeat before the popular tribunal, in the ensuing August. The same act provided that, in case of the rejection of the Le-compton constitution, the people of the territory should at a future period, when sufficiently numerous and peaceably organized, proceed to the formation of a State constitution, with a view to admission into the Union.

Another popular disturbance, calling for the interposition of the executive, was the difficulty with the Mormons in Utah, under the domination of Brigham Young. Young had been appointed the first governor of the territory, in 1850, and, to his secular power added that of spiritual ruler of the Mormon population. Whatever conflicted with the peculiar views and interests of this man and his fanatical confederates was sure to be opposed, and the result was, that the judicial and executive officers of the government were obliged to leave the territory, where they were exposed to constant insult and threatened harm. President Buchanan therefore felt it his duty, in 1857, to appoint a new governor, and other federal officers for Utah, and these were sent into the territory, with a military force for their protection and the restoration of the supremacy of the Constitution and laws. This action was met, on the part of Young, with a proclamation announcing his intention of resisting the entrance of the United States troops into the territory ; orders were issued for that purpose, and for destroying the supply trains of the army, and placing every impediment in its way. The entire Mormon population were exhorted to take up arms against the government, and the most violent threats of resistance were universal. Seventy-five wagons loaded with provisions and tents for the troops were seized and burned by the Mormons ; forts Bridger and Supply were destroyed ; and the army was compelled to winter, under circumstances of great privation, before reaching its place of destination. This intelligence led to energetic action on the part of Congress. New supplies were voted, and two volunteer regiments authorized. These, however, were not eventually required, although the determination of the government, thus manifested, to put down the rebellion at all hazards, doubtless led to its peaceable settlement soon afterwards. In the meantime, the President was disposed to prevent, if possible, the effusion of blood, and in the spring of 1858 sent two commissioners to Utah, with a proclamation addressed to its inhabitants, representing the guilt and danger of their conduct, and

offering them a free pardon for their late treasonable acts, if they would promise submission. This measure was crowned with success. The Mormons, now aware of their critical position, and their leaders cowed by the imminent danger at hand, were quite willing to embrace such easy terms of reconciliation. Governor Cumming was received as the successor of Young, and peace again restored to the territory. A portion of the army was subsequently sent to Oregon, to suppress Indian hostilities in that quarter; and the remainder retained in the vicinity of Salt Lake City. Early in 1859, rumors of new troubles in Utah were received; and the opinion is entertained that Mormon difficulties will never wholly cease until this singular and perverse people leave the United States territories entirely, and emigrate to other parts.

Turning to the foreign affairs of the country, we find the old question of the right of search, on the part of Great Britain, again brought into active discussion. During the early part of 1858, a large number of our merchant vessels, sailing in the neighborhood of Cuba, were overhauled by British cruisers, boarded, and searched, under the pretence that they were suspected of being engaged in the slave-trade. The indignation of the American people, and of Congress, which was in session, was immediately aroused at these insulting and illegal acts. The attention of the British government was called to the subject, and the hope expressed that the course pursued by its naval officers would be at once disavowed. To arrest these proceedings a naval force was dispatched by the President to the neighborhood of their transaction; and Congress, taking the matter up with earnestness, proceeded to resolve, that American ships at sea, under the American flag, remain under the jurisdiction of the country to which they belong, and therefore that any visitation or molestation is an infraction of the sovereignty of the United States; that these aggressions demand such an unequivocal explanation from Great Britain as shall prevent their recurrence forever in future; and that Congress approves of the action of the Executive, and is prepared to adopt such legislation as circumstances may require. Fortunately, the difficulty was settled without a resort to force. The proceedings of the cruisers were peremptorily stopped by the British government, their past acts disavowed, and the principles set forth by our government acknowledged to be just and proper. The President, in noticing this subject in his Message of 1858, remarked that the British government, while abandoning the claim of the right of search, at the same time proposed to the United States that some mode should be adopted, by mutual arrangement between the two countries, for verifying the nationality of vessels suspected on

good grounds of carrying false colors. To this it was replied, that we were ready to receive any proposals which they may feel disposed to offer, having this object in view, and to consider them in an amicable spirit.

In the previous year (1857) hostilities had taken place in China, on the part of the British and French acting against Canton, and ministers had been sent by those governments for the purpose of negotiating treaties with the Chinese. Our own government also sent thither an able commissioner, who, while instructed to occupy neutral ground in regard to the difficulties then pending, was directed to co-operate with the British and French, in all peaceful measures to secure by treaty those just concessions of foreign commerce which the nations of the world had a right to demand. Russia also occupied at the time a similar position of neutrality and peaceful intention. The result was the successful negotiation of a treaty by Mr. Reed, our commissioner, with the Chinese, on the 13th of June, 1858, establishing the most friendly relations, and greatly extending the advantages of commerce with that country.

Through the efforts of our consul at Japan, a new and enlarged treaty was also concluded with that power, in 1858. From being an isolated and comparatively unknown country, as it was previous to the famous expedition in 1852, under Commodore Perry, Japan has now become one of the family of commercial nations. The mention of the name of Perry leads us to make a record in these pages of the death of this distinguished naval officer. Commodore Matthew Colbreath Perry died in the city of New York, on the 4th of March, 1858, aged sixty-three years. He was one of the ablest of our naval commanders, and particularly distinguished himself as flag officer of the Gulf squadron in the Mexican war, and in connection with the Japan expedition, as before stated, the remarkable success of which was attributed to his energetic and able management.

The death of another eminent character occurred the following month. The Hon. Thomas Hart Benton died in Washington on the 10th of April, 1858, at the age of seventy-six. Colonel Benton was one among the eminent statesmen that have attracted the attention and directed the legislation of the country for the last half-century. He was the contemporary of Clay, Webster and Calhoun, and but a short time before his death completed and gave to the world, in his "Thirty Years' View," a full and admirable history of events in Congress during the long period of his connection with that body.

Further to illustrate the obituary history of the period, we may

mention the death of that distinguished officer in the Mexican war, General John A. Quitman, which took place at Natchez, on the 17th of July, 1858 and of the famous Hungarian refugee, Martin Koszta, (whose rescue from Austrian power is noticed in the previous chapter,) in the early part of May; while in the previous year (1857) the record of mortality embraced the names of the Hon. Louis McLane, the celebrated Secretary of the Treasury under General Jackson, and of James G. Birney, well known as the repeated candidate of the antislavery party for the presidency. The remains of Ex-president Monroe were, on the 2d of July, 1858, removed with much ceremony from the city of New York, where they had rested since 1831, and conveyed to Virginia for final interment.

Resuming our ordinary narrative, we now proceed to place on record the leading facts connected with that remarkable enterprise, the laying of the Atlantic Telegraph Cable. The first attempt to lay the cable was made in 1857, and proved unsuccessful; another attempt was made in June, 1858, when three successive partings of the cable took place, and the vessels returned to port. On the 17th of July, they again set sail to resume the work. England and the United States were combined in the undertaking, the latter furnishing, by vote of Congress, the new and magnificent war-steamer Niagara to assist in the laying. On the 29th of the month the cable was joined in mid-ocean, and on the 5th of August the ends were successfully landed, the American end, by the Niagara, at Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, and the British end by the Agamemnon, at Valentia, Ireland—the two termini distant from each other 1,695 geographical miles. Thus was this mighty enterprise accomplished, after overcoming obstacles, disappointments, and dangers, which, to a less persevering and intelligent race of men would have appeared insurmountable.

The cable proved shortly after to be defective, requiring that the work should be done over again; but it remained perfect long enough to be tested, and to establish the great fact that transatlantic telegraphing was practicable. The following messages, which were transmitted through the cable, we place on historical record:

THE QUEEN'S MESSAGE.

"To the President of the United States:

"The Queen desires to congratulate the President upon the successful completion of this great international work, in which the Queen has taken the deepest interest.

"The Queen is convinced that the President will join with her in fer

vently hoping that the Electric Cable which now connects Great Britain with the United States will prove an additional link between the nations, whose friendship is founded upon their common interest and reciprocal esteem.

"The Queen has much pleasure in thus communicating with the President, and renewing to him her wishes for the prosperity of the United States."

THE PRESIDENT'S REPLY.

"WASHINGTON CITY, Aug. 16, 1858.

"To her Majesty, VICTORIA, Queen of Great Britain :

"The President cordially reciprocates the congratulations of Her Majesty, the Queen, on the success of the great international enterprise accomplished by the science, skill, and indomitable energy of the two countries. It is a triumph more glorious, because far more useful to mankind, than was ever won by conqueror on the field of battle.

"May the Atlantic Telegraph, under the blessing of Heaven, prove to be a bond of perpetual peace and friendship between the kindred nations, and an instrument destined by Divine Providence to diffuse religion, civilization, liberty, and law throughout the world. In this view will not all nations of Christendom spontaneously unite in the declaration that it shall be forever neutral, and that its communications shall be held sacred in passing to their places of destination, even in the midst of hostilities ?

(Signed)

"JAMES BUCHANAN."

Another important event of the year was the opening of the Overland Mail route from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In the absence of a Pacific railroad, such a measure was necessary to accommodate the emigration westward and to secure a more safe and rapid means of communication with our distant possessions in that quarter.

The republic of Paraguay having been guilty of inflicting various insults and injuries upon our flag and upon the persons and property of American citizens within her limits, and having failed to make proper apology and reparation, the President recommended in his message of 1857 that a final effort be made to obtain redress from that power, and that the Executive be authorized to use other means in the event of a refusal. Congress accordingly granted the necessary authority in 1858, and in the fall of that year a powerful naval expedition was dispatched to Paraguay, under the command of Commodore

Shubrick. The Hon. James B. Bowlin accompanied the expedition, as Commissioner, fully authorized to make a peaceful settlement, if possible, before resorting to force. The fleet arrived at its destination early in 1859, having with considerable difficulty navigated its way up the tortuous stream leading to the interior republic. The efforts of our Commissioner fortunately were successful, and, without firing a cannon, President Lopez was induced to come to terms. The friendly advice and interposition of General Urquiza, President of the Argentine Confederation, also, without doubt, exerted an influence in producing the pacific results which followed. A favorable treaty was concluded with Paraguay, and the various causes of animosity were removed by satisfactory concessions on her part.

The administration of Buchanan was, furthermore, actively engaged in looking after and defending the interests of the United States in the various portions of Central America, and negotiations with New Grenada, Nicaragua, Mexico, and other local governments, occupied its watchful attention and energies. The importance of keeping open the transit routes to the Pacific, and of protecting the lives and property of American citizens, in those quarters, called for constant vigilance and effort.

So, also, in regard to the suppression of fillibustering enterprises on the part of some of our own citizens, against those governments, and in regard to efforts having in view the prevention of an attempted revival of the slave-trade along our southern coasts, and the return to Africa of slaves thus found landed on our shores, the conduct of our government has been of a decided and prompt character.

In regard to the acquisition of Cuba, considerable discussion was had in Congress in the early part of 1859. The President, in his message to that body, had treated largely of the subject, showing the importance of the acquisition. Its geographical and commercial advantages were eloquently set forth. The United States had several times before attempted a negotiation with Spain for its purchase, but had been unsuccessful. Mr. Buchanan, however, strongly recommended that the attempt should be renewed, and, as it might be necessary that he should, in conducting the bargain, be provided with a certain amount of money to advance to the Spanish government, he also submitted that suggestion to Congress, commending the whole subject to its careful consideration. The question was formally brought forward, favorably reported upon in a very elaborate and able manner in both Houses, and an appropriation of thirty millions of dollars recommended to be passed. Owing to the shortness of the session, the matter was

not definitely acted upon; it elicited, however, much debate, which assisted materially in bringing the subject more clearly and fully to the attention of the nation.



T this session of Congress, Oregon was admitted as a State of the Confederacy, as had Minnesota the year previous. This increased the number of States to thirty-three, two of which (Oregon and California) face the broad Pacific.

By authority of Congress, important additions of new war-steamers have been made, though more, it is apprehended, will be required to properly look after and defend the widely-extended commerce and interests of the nation, especially in times of general warlike disturbance throughout the world. The early part of 1859, for example, witnessed the breaking out of war among the nations of Europe—France and Sardinia combating against Austria, and with the prospect of involving the other great powers in the conflict. The difficulty related to the independence of the Italian States, over some of which Austria had long exerted an undue control.

Hostilities were precipitated by the demand of Austria upon Sardinia, to disarm—a demand which was of course indignantly refused by the latter. The appeal was then to arms. An Austrian army of one hundred and twenty thousand men invaded the territory of Sardinia on the 29th of April, and in a few days was confronted by the Sardinian army numbering about sixty thousand, aided by a French army of two hundred thousand men, under the leadership of Louis Napoleon himself. The Austrians commenced retracing their steps, and were followed up by the Allies. On the 21st of May the first battle took place at Montebello, one of the successful battle-fields of the first Napoleon, and resulted in the defeat of the Austrians. The battle of Palestro followed on the 30th of the same month, and here again the Austrians were defeated. On the 4th of June took place the great battle of Magenta, in which one hundred and twenty thousand of the Allies fought one hundred and fifty thousand of the enemy. The Austrians here sustained another defeat, losing about ten thousand in killed, wounded, and prisoners, and the Allies about three thousand. This battle opened the way to Milan, which was immediately evacuated by the Austrians, and entered by the Allies on the 8th of June.

The Austrians now rapidly retreated, to reach their strongly fortified positions beyond the Mincio. Their rear-guard was, however, over-

taken at Melignano, where another desperate struggle took place, resulting in the success of the Allies and a severe loss to the enemy. Finally, on the 24th of June, the great and decisive battle of Solferino was fought. The forces numbered about two hundred thousand on each side; and from early morn to late in the evening, the fierce and terrible encounter lasted. The Allies lost about eighteen thousand, and the Austrians as many more, making nearly forty thousand men sacrificed in this fearful engagement. The Austrians were driven from the field. Operations were about being undertaken against the fortresses of Peschiera and Verona, when, on the 8th of July, an armistice was agreed upon, and on the 11th a treaty of peace was signed at Villafranca, by the emperors of France and Austria. Thus suddenly and unexpectedly was this mighty conflict brought to a close. Meantime, Garibaldi, the Italian leader, was performing wonders in northern Lombardy, while the Hungarian patriots, Kossuth and Klapka, were on the point of creating a revolution in Hungary.

The basis of the peace were: Italy a confederacy, under the honorary presidency of the Pope; Lombardy annexed to Sardinia; Venetia to be ruled by Austria, but as a part of the Italian confederacy; and a general amnesty: a conference to be held at Zurich for the arrangement of details.

Prominent among the events of 1860, was the arrival in this country of an embassy from the empire of Japan, consisting of two princes, and a train of officials and attendants, numbering about seventy persons. The event was strikingly novel, inasmuch as such a step toward international intercourse had never before been known in the history of that jealous and secluded nation; and it was regarded as important, because it afforded an indication of future free and friendly association, particularly between that country and the United States. The embassy arrived on the Pacific coast in the United States war-steamer Powhatan, and in the Roanoke at New York on the 9th of May. The Roanoke proceeded at once, without landing, to convey the embassy to Washington, where it landed on the 14th, and on the 17th its members were formally presented to the President of the United States. An exchange of the ratified treaty between the United States and Japan was made; and the embassy, after passing a number of weeks at Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, observing the institutions of this country, and everywhere received with the most courteous attentions, left for home in the government steamer Niagara from New York, on the 30th of June.

The arrival of the mammoth steamship, the Great Eastern, about

this time, was a new source of wide-spread interest. After repeated disappointments, this wonder of maritime architecture arrived at New York on the 27th of June, after a passage of little more than eleven days from England. A feeling of mingled curiosity and admiration led to an immense influx of people from all parts of the country to visit the monster as she lay at her wharf on the North River. The commercial emporium continued to be the scene of concentrated interest for weeks, and it was estimated that very nearly two hundred thousand persons visited the great steamship. Her marvellous size was such (being seven hundred and eighty feet in length and one hundred and fifteen in width) that the largest steamers and ships moored in her vicinity shrunk, in the comparison, to the dimensions of small river craft; while her internal arrangements and machinery were inspected with eager and profound interest by the multitude that flocked on board of her. After making one or two excursions along the coast, and fulfilling the mission of her first visit, the Great Eastern left New York for England on the 16th of August, arriving at Milford Haven, England, on the 26th.

Among the more afflictive casualties of the year may be mentioned the occurrence of several tornadoes, of unprecedented fury, at the West, which occasioned the destruction of hundreds of lives, and the loss of a vast amount of property. Among the marine disasters, the fate of the Hungarian stands prominent. This steamer was wrecked on the morning of the 20th of February, in the vicinity of Cape Sable, on her passage from Liverpool to Portland, and all on board, about three hundred and sixty in number, perished. Another appalling calamity, of a like nature, occurred on Lake Michigan, on the morning of the 8th of September, when the Lady Elgin, a packet steamer crowded with passengers, most of whom were excursionists belonging in Milwaukee, was run into and sunk; and of nearly four hundred persons, only about one-quarter were saved.

During the month of August, intelligence came from the south that the famous General William Walker, of Nicaragua notoriety, had essayed a fresh expedition against Central America, directing his enterprise this time against Honduras. It was soon after reported that he had effected a landing and captured the town of Truxillo. His career, however, soon met with an abrupt and fatal termination; for, by the middle of September, news was received in this country of the capture of himself and the small body of men under his command, by the forces of a British war-vessel, and of his surrender to the authorities of Honduras, by whom Walker was executed, one of his leading

officers sentenced to four year's imprisonment, and his followers permitted to return to the United States. Thus closed the eventful career of the filibustering general.

In contrast with this, stands the heroic and successful course of the distinguished Italian patriot, Garibaldi. Setting out for Sicily in the early part of May, with about a thousand followers, in two steamers, he landed at Marsala, in the very face of the enemy, and under the fire of Neapolitan war-frigates. One of his steamers was captured and the other sunk. But Garibaldi had the hearts of the people with him; they regarded him as their friend and liberator. He was not long, then, in swelling his ranks with volunteers, while reinforcements from Sardinia also came to his assistance. His forces were still seemingly inadequate to the great enterprise before him, yet with unsurpassed resolution he pushed his way onward. After a desperate struggle of two days, he captured the important city of Palermo; next Messina, and causing the Neapolitan forces and authorities speedily to quit the island in dismay and consternation, he proclaimed it annexed to the possessions of Victor Emanuel, and himself its temporary Dictator. Not resting here, his efforts in behalf of Italian freedom were transferred to the main land; and on the 8th of September, he entered unopposed the city of Naples, amidst the joyful demonstrations of its inhabitants, the king and royal family having already fled before the approach of the patriot and liberator.

An event of an extraordinary character, and that deeply stirred the public interest, was the visit of the Prince of Wales to America during the summer of 1860. His Royal Highness was received with the utmost respect, on the part of the public authorities and all classes of the people, and left the country on his return home, having produced a most favorable impression in the course of his travels amongst us.

On Monday, April 23, 1860, the National Convention of the Democratic party met at Charleston, S. C., for the purpose of nominating candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States. Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, was the only prominent candidate before the convention for the first office. He was the acknowledged champion of the principle, that the people of the Territories had the right, equally with the people of the States, to regulate the institution of slavery as they pleased. A large portion of the Southern delegates denied this doctrine, and opposed his nomination. They claimed that slavery was protected as property in all the national domain, outside of the States, wherever the slave-owners chose to carry it, and demanded of the convention to declare that neither Congress nor the

Territorial legislatures had any power either to confirm or prohibit it in the Territories. The convention refused to make this declaration, but agreed that the subject should be left to the courts, as a judicial question. This did not satisfy the Southern delegates, and they left the convention. After a boisterous session, which continued to Thursday, May 3, and after taking fifty-seven ballots without securing the requisite two-thirds vote for Mr. Douglas, the convention adjourned to meet at Baltimore on the 18th of June. The seceding delegates organized and adjourned to meet at Richmond on the 11th of June. They met according to appointment, and again adjourned to meet at Baltimore on the 21st of June.

Both conventions met agreeable to appointment, but the breach between them was wider than ever. The regular convention nominated Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, for President, and Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, for Vice-President. The seceders nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, for President, and Joseph Lane, of Oregon, for Vice-President. Both conventions adhered to the doctrine in regard to slavery upon which they originally split.

On the 9th of May, John Bell, of Tennessee, was nominated for President, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President, by a convention in Baltimore, styling themselves the "Union party." They declared simply in favor of "the Union, the constitution, and the enforcement of the laws."

On Wednesday, the 16th day of May, the Republican National Convention assembled in the city of Chicago, and on Friday, on the third ballot, nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, for President. Subsequently, Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine, was nominated for Vice-President.

Abraham Lincoln, the nominee of this convention, who was destined to fill so large a place, not only in the history of his own country, but in that of the world, was a self-educated man. He was born in La Rue County, Kentucky, on the 12th of February, 1809, of poor parents, from whom he inherited nothing but a sound mind in a sound body. His boyhood was spent in the rough experiences of a frontier life, with no educational advantages but such as he sought out himself by his own instinctive thirst for mental improvement. He was for a time a flatboatman, then a wood-chopper, then a clerk in a small grocery, then a miller, then a soldier in the Black Hawk war, then a village politician, then a law student, and finally a lawyer. At all times he eagerly sought to enlarge his stock of knowledge, and always carried

in his bosom a "merry heart that doeth good like a medicine." His manners were in the highest degree popular, and, at an early age, with a high reputation as a profound lawyer, he was elected for four successive years as a member of the State Legislature. He served as a member of Congress from 1847 to 1849, and from that time was not brought prominently before the country until in 1858 he was placed in nomination as a candidate for United States senator, in opposition to Stephen A. Douglas. The canvass that followed this nomination was the most remarkable ever known in the history of a free country. Both candidates travelled together for several months, and discussed the great national questions in issue from the same platform. It was a combat of giants. The whole country watched the discussion with the liveliest interest, for it developed, in each disputant, mental resources that were the admiration of the world. The canvass closed by the return of a majority of the Legislature in favor of Mr. Douglas, but the popular vote was in favor of Mr. Lincoln.

On the opening of this discussion Mr. Lincoln broadly announced his position on the slavery question, in language in which there was no ambiguity. He said

"If we would first know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it. We are now far into the fifth year, since a policy was initiated with the avowed object and confident promise of putting an end to slavery agitation. Under the operation of that policy, that agitation has not only not ceased, but has constantly augmented. In my opinion it will not cease until a crisis shall have been reached and passed. 'A house divided against itself cannot stand.' I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved,—I do not expect the house to fall,—but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction, or its advocates will push it forward until it shall become alike lawful in all the States, old as well as new, North as well as South."

Such were the opinions of Mr. Lincoln. They were not opinions alone, they were the utterances of a mind endued with the spirit of prophecy.

The question of slavery, upon which the other party had foundered,

was harmoniously disposed of in the Republican Convention by the following resolutions:

"That the maintenance inviolate of the rights of the States, and especially the right of each State to order and control its own domestic institutions according to its own judgment exclusively, is essential to that balance of power on which the perfection and endurance of our political faith depends, and we denounce the lawless invasion by armed force of any State or Territory, no matter under what pretext, as among the gravest of crimes.

"That the normal condition of all the territory of the United States is that of freedom; that as our republican fathers, when they abolished slavery in all our national territory, ordained that no person should be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, it becomes our duty, by legislation, whenever such legislation is necessary, to maintain this provision of the constitution against all attempt to violate it; and we deny the authority of Congress, of a Territorial Legislature, or of any individuals, to give legal existence to slavery in any Territory of the United States."

The canvass that followed these conventions was not unusually exciting, because from the confused condition of the opposition parties, the election of Lincoln was conceded from the beginning. The hour had come when the policy of the nation was to be changed in respect to the institution of slavery, and the flaming sword of freedom set up to guard in every way the entrance to the rich and fertile territories of the West.

On the 6th of November the presidential election took place. The electoral votes of the States were distributed among the candidates as follows:

Lincoln and Hamlin.....	180
Breckinridge and Lane.....	72
Bell and Everett.....	39
Douglas and Johnson.....	12

The exact popular vote was as follows:

Lincoln and Hamlin.....	1,857,610
Douglas and Johnson.....	992,139
Breckinridge and Lane (South Carolina estimated).....	749,082
Bell and Everett.....	575,193
Fusion votes for Douglas, Breckinridge, and Bell.....	343,837
Fusion votes for Douglas and Bell.....	15,438
Total popular vote.....	4,533,299

Immediately on ascertaining the result of the election, active preparations were made in the slaveholding States for a withdrawal from the Union. South Carolina took the lead. The Legislature of that State met on the 27th of November, and at once provided for the election of delegates to a State convention, to meet on the 17th of December. This convention, composed of delegates fresh from the people, met at Columbia on the day appointed, but adjourned to Charleston, in consequence of the prevalence of the small pox at the former place. On the 20th day of December, almost without debate, and by a unanimous vote, the convention adopted an ordinance of secession, which, as a sample of all the ordinances of that kind passed by the other States, is here given :—

“An ordinance to dissolve the Union between the State of South Carolina and other States united with her under the compact entitled ‘The Constitution of the United States of America.’

“We, the people of South Carolina, in convention, assembled, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained, that the ordinance adopted by us in convention on the 23d day of May, in the year of our Lord, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, whereby the Constitution of the United States of America was ratified, and also, all acts and parts of acts of the General Assembly of this State ratifying amendments of the said constitution, are hereby repealed; and that the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States, under the name of the ‘United States of America,’ is hereby dissolved.”

The convention also issued a declaration of independence, and adopted ordinances preparing the State for its independent position; among which was one defining “treason,” declaring that offence to consist in levying war against the State, adhering to its enemies, giving them aid and comfort, and pronouncing the punishment for such conduct to be “death without benefit of clergy.” The reign of terror was thus inaugurated. Loyalty to the United States was treason to South Carolina.

On the 3d day of December Congress convened, the representatives of all the States being in their seats. The message of President Buchanan elaborately discussed the state of the country, and the relative powers of the General and State governments. He talked as a statesman when his language should have been that of a soldier. Instead of a fine-spun argument about State rights, if he had simply told the Southern malcontents that if they attempted to obstruct the execu-

tion of the laws he would put them to the sword, war might not have been averted, but it would have been a short affair, and probably confined to South Carolina.

That part of the President's message relating to the state of the country was referred in the House to a special committee of thirty-three, or one from each State, and in the Senate to a special committee of thirteen. The House committee became gradually reduced by the withdrawal of many of the Southern members, and its deliberations are scarcely worthy a record. A majority of the Senate committee agreed upon a plan proposed by Senator Crittenden of Kentucky, and as this plan was generally accepted, both in Congress and out of it, by the opponents of the administration elect, it is here placed on record as the famous "Crittenden Compromise:"

1. Slavery to be prohibited in all Territories north of 36 degrees 30 minutes, but to be recognized and protected in all Territories south of that line; any Territory, when it has the requisite population, to be admitted as a State, either with or without slavery, as its constitution may provide. 2. Congress to have no power to abolish slavery in places under the exclusive jurisdiction of slaveholding States, nor in the District of Columbia, nor under any circumstances without making compensation to the owners, nor to prohibit the slave-trade between the slave States. 3. Congress to have power to pay for fugitive slaves when their return is prevented by violence; the United States to recover the amount from the county where the violence is committed, and the county to recover it from the wrong-doers. 4. No future amendments to the constitution to affect the foregoing provisions, nor to authorize Congress to interfere with slavery in the States where it is permitted by law.

A committee of members of Congress from the Border States substantially agreed upon this proposition, but it failed to meet the approbation of Congress, and was abandoned.

At the suggestion of Virginia, a convention, styled a "Peace Congress," composed of delegates from all the States of the Union, assembled on the 4th of February, at Washington, to devise a plan to conciliate the South. Ex-president John Tyler, of Virginia, was chosen president. This convention adjourned on the 28th, after agreeing upon a plan of adjustment substantially the same as that of the Crittenden project. This plan was ratified by Congress, but was never heard of afterwards.

All plans of compromise had thus failed. The friends of the ad-

ministration elect refused to have anything to do with them. They had been fairly and constitutionally elected to administer the government, and they scorned to endeavor to placate those who were concealing their treasonable designs under the guise of grievances which were purely imaginary.

In the meantime the spirit of treason was running riot at the South, without any interference from those at Washington in whose hands was placed the execution of the laws. On the night of December 26th, Major Anderson, commanding at Fort Moultrie, in Charleston harbor, apprehending an attack upon that position from batteries which the authorities of South Carolina had erected in range of it, quietly removed his command to Fort Sumter, in the same harbor, and there with religious solemnities raised the Stars and Stripes, and solemnly pledged his little band to defend it to the last extremity. This fortress was deemed impregnable. But in order to hold it, reinforcements of men and provisions were indispensable. Major Anderson appealed to the President for assistance. The steamship *Star of the West* was at once despatched to his aid, loaded with provisions and with 200 soldiers. This ship sailed from New York on the 5th of January, and arrived at Charleston bar at midnight on the 8th. The lights had all been removed from the harbor, and it was impossible to reach the port until daylight. As the day began to break, the *Star of the West* passed up the channel towards Fort Sumter. On arriving opposite Morris Island, about two miles from the fort, a masked battery opened fire upon the vessel, although an American flag was flying from the flagstaff of the ship, and a large American ensign from the foretop. The ship was unarmed, and to avoid certain destruction, after being struck by three heavy shots, retreated from the harbor and returned to New York. This was as much an open act of war as if the guns had been pointed at the Capitol at Washington, but the administration still hesitated, and made no attempt, even, to punish the aggressors.

In the month of January, the States of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, and Louisiana followed the example of South Carolina, and formally seceded from the Union. Their delegations left Congress. They appointed commissioners to visit the other slaveholding States, to induce them to join the new government which they had now determined to form.

The delegates of the six seceding States met at Montgomery, Alabama, on the 4th of February, formed themselves into a Congress,

framed a "Constitution for the Provisional Government of the Confederate States of America," and elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, president, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, vice-president of the same, to hold office for one year, till a permanent form of government should be prepared.

CHAPTER LVI.

ADMINISTRATION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN.



ON the 11th day of February, 1861, Abraham Lincoln, the President elect, bade adieu to his friends in Springfield, Illinois, and set out on his journey to Washington. His address on the occasion has a solemn interest at this time, and indicates how clearly he appreciated the great responsibilities he was about to assume. He said :

“MY FRIENDS :

“No one not in my position can appreciate the sadness I feel at this parting. To this people I owe all I am. Here I have lived more than a quarter of a century ; here my children were born, and here one of them lies buried. I know not how soon I shall see you again. A duty devolves upon me which is, perhaps, greater than that which has devolved upon any other man since the days of Washington. He never would have succeeded except for the aid of Divine Providence, upon whom he at all times relied. I feel that I cannot succeed without the same Divine aid which sustained him, and on the same Almighty Being I place my reliance and support ; and I hope you, my friends, will all pray that I may receive that Divine assistance, without which I cannot succeed, but with which, success is certain. Again I bid you all an affectionate farewell.”

Reaching Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, he was informed of a plot to assassinate him in the city of Baltimore. By the advice of friends he quietly left Harrisburg by a special train, and proceeded by night through Baltimore to Washington, where he arrived early on the morning of Saturday, February 23d.

On the arrival of Mr. Lincoln at Washington, immediate preparations were commenced for his inauguration as President on the 4th of March. For the first time in the history of the country, so rampant and unrestrained had the spirit of treason become, it was necessary to perform that august ceremony under the shadow of military power :



as if the President elect, instead of being the chosen servant of a free, powerful, peaceful and intelligent people, were a tyrant and usurper. The arrangements for the occasion were entrusted to the hands of that veteran soldier and patriot, General Winfield Scott. The inauguration proceeded without interruption, and the reins of power were assumed by Mr. Lincoln.

MR. LINCOLN'S INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

FELLOW-CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES:

In compliance with a custom as old as the government itself, I appear before you to address you briefly, and to take in your presence the oath prescribed by the Constitution of the United States to be taken by the President before he enters on the execution of his office. I do not consider it necessary at present for me to discuss those matters of administration about which there is no special anxiety or excitement.

Apprehension seems to exist among the people of the Southern States that by the accession of a republican administration, their property, and their peace and personal security, are to be endangered. There has never been any reasonable cause for such apprehension. Indeed, the most ample evidence to the contrary has all the while existed, and been open to their inspection.

It is found in nearly all the public speeches of him who now addresses you. I do but quote from one of these speeches, when I declare that I have no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in all States where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so, and I have no inclination to do so. Those who nominated and elected me did so with full knowledge that I had made this and similar declarations, and had never recanted them. More than this, they placed in the platform for my acceptance, as a law to themselves and to me, the clear and emphatic resolution which I now read.

Resolved, That the maintenance inviolate of the right of the States, and especially the right of each State to order and control its own domestic institutions according to its own judgment exclusively, is essential to that balance of power on which the perfection and endurance of our political fabric depend, and we denounce the lawless invasion by armed force of the soil of any State or Territory, no matter under what pretext, as the gravest of crimes.

I now reiterate these sentiments, and in so doing, I only press upon the public attention the most conclusive evidence of which the case is susceptible, that the property, peace, and security of no section are to be in any wise endangered by the now incoming administration.

I add to that all the protection which, consistently with the Constitution and the laws, can be given, will be cheerfully given to all the States, when lawfully demanded, for whatever cause, as cheerfully to one section as to another. There is much controversy about the delivering up of fugitives from service or labor. The clause I now read is as plainly written in the Constitution as any other of its provisions.

"No person held to service or labor in one State under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be dis-

charged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due."

It is scarcely questioned that this provision was intended by those who made it for the reclaiming of what we call fugitive slaves, and the intention of the lawgiver is the law. All members of Congress swear their support to the whole Constitution—to this provision as much as any other.

To the proposition then that slaves whose cases come within the terms of this clause shall be delivered up, their oaths are unanimous. Now if they would make the effort in good temper, could they not, with nearly equal unanimity, frame and pass a law by means of which to keep good that unanimous oath.

There is some difference of opinion whether this clause should be enforced by National or by State authority; but surely that difference is not a very material one. If the slave is to be surrendered, it can be of but little consequence to him or to others how it is done. And should any one in any case be content that his oath shall go unkept on a merely unsubstantial controversy as to how it shall be kept?

Again, in any law upon this subject, ought not all the safeguards of liberty known in civilized and humane jurisprudence to be introduced, so that a free man be not in any case surrendered as a slave, and might it not be well at the same time to provide by law for the enforcement of that clause in the Constitution which guarantees that the citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

I take the official oath to-day with no mental reservations, and with no purpose to construe the Constitution and laws by any hypercritical rules, and while I do not choose now to specify particular acts of Congress as proper to be enforced, I do suggest that it will be much safer for all, both in official and private stations, to conform to and abide by all those acts which stand unrepealed, than to violate any of them, trusting to find impunity in having them held to be unconstitutional.

It is seventy-two years since the first inauguration of a President under our National Constitution. During that period fifteen different and greatly distinguished citizens have in succession administered the executive branch of the government. They have conducted it through many perils, and generally with great success.

Yet with all this scope for precedence, I now enter upon the same task for the brief constitutional term of four years, under great and peculiar difficulties. A disruption of the Federal Union, heretofore only menaced, is now formidably attempted. I hold that in the contemplation of universal law and of the Constitution, the Union of these States is perpetual.

Perpetuity is implied, if not expressed, in the fundamental law of all national governments. It is safe to assert that no government ever prospered which had a provision in its organic law for its own termination. Continue to execute all the express provisions of our national Constitution, and the Union will endure forever, it being impossible to destroy it, except by some action not provided for in the instrument itself. Again, if the United States be not a government proper, but an association of States, in the nature of a contract merely, can it, as a contract, be peaceably unmade by less than all the parties who made it. One party to a contract may violate it, so to speak, but does it not require all to lawfully rescind it?

Descending from these general principles, we find the proposition that in legal contemplation the Union is perpetual, confirmed by the history of the Union itself.

The Union is much older than the Constitution. It was formed, in fact, by the articles of association in 1774. It was matured and continued in the Declaration of Independence in 1776. It was further matured, and the faith of all the then thirteen States expressly plighted and engaged that it should be perpetuated by the articles of confederation in 1778, and finally, in 1789, one of the declared objects for ordaining and establishing the Constitution was, "to form a more perfect Union;" but if the destruction of the Union by one or by a part only of the States be lawfully possible, the Union is less than before the Constitution, having lost the vital element of perpetuity.

It follows from these views that no State, upon its own mere motion, can lawfully get out of the Union: that resolves and ordinances to that effect are legally void, and that acts of violence within any State or States, against the authority of the United States, are insurrectionary or revolutionary according to circumstances.

I therefore consider that in view of the Constitution and the laws, the Union is not broken, and to the extent of my ability I shall take care, as the Constitution itself expressly enjoins upon me, that the laws of the Union be faithfully executed in all the States.

Doing this I deem to be only a simple duty on my part, and I shall faithfully perform it so far as it is possible, unless my rightful masters, the American people, shall withhold the requisite means, or in some authoritative manner direct the contrary. I trust this will not be regarded as a menace, but only as the declared purpose of the Union, that it will constitutionally defend and maintain itself.

In doing this there need be no bloodshed or violence, and there shall be none, unless it is forced upon the national authority. The power confided to me will be used to hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the government, and collect the duties and imposts, but beyond what may be necessary for these objects there will be no invasion, no using of force against or among the people anywhere.

Where hostility to the United States shall be so great, in any State—shall be so great and so universal as to prevent competent resident citizens from holding the federal offices, there will be no attempt to force obnoxious strangers among the people with that object. While a strict legal right may exist for the government to enforce the occupancy of these offices, the attempt to do so would be so irritating and so nearly impracticable withal, that I deem it better to forego for the time the use of such offices.

The mails, unless repelled, will continue to be furnished in all parts of the Union. So far as possible, the people everywhere shall have that sense of perfect security which is most favorable to calm thought and reflection; the course here indicated will be followed unless current events and experience shall show a modification or change to be proper; and in every case and exigency my best discretion shall be exercised according to the circumstances actually existing, and with a view and hope of a peaceful solution of the national troubles, and the restoration of fraternal sympathies and affections.

That there are persons in one section or another who seek to destroy the Union at all events, and are glad of any pretext to do it, I will neither affirm nor deny.

But if there be such I need address no word to them. To those, however, who really love the Union, may I not speak, before entering upon so grave a matter as the destruction of our national fabric, with all its benefits, its memories, and its hopes? Would not it be well to ascertain why we do it?

Will you hazard so desperate a step while there is any portion of the ills you fly from which have no real existence? Will you, while the certain ills you fly to are greater than all the real ones you fly from? Will you risk the commission of so fearful a mistake.

All profess to be content in the Union, if all constitutional rights can be maintained. Is it true, then, that any right plainly written in the Constitution has been denied? I think not. Happily, the human mind is so constituted that no party can reach the audacity of doing this. Think, if you can, of a single instance in which a plainly written provision of the Constitution has ever been denied.

If by the mere force of numbers a majority should deprive a minority of any clearly written constitutional right, it might, in a moral point of view, justify revolution. Certainly it would, if such right were a vital one; but such is not our case. All the vital rights of minorities and of individuals are so plainly assured to them by affirmations and negotiations, guarantees and prohibitions in the Constitution that controversies never arise concerning them. But no organic law can ever be framed with a provision specifically applicable to every question which may occur in practical administration. No foresight can anticipate, nor any document of reasonable length contain express provisions for all possible questions.

Shall fugitives from labor be surrendered by National or by State authority? The Constitution does not expressly say. Must Congress protect slavery in the Territories? The Constitution does not expressly say.

From questions of this class spring all our constitutional controversies, and we divide upon them into majorities and minorities. If the minority will not acquiesce, the majority must, or the government must cease. There is no alternative for continuing the government but acquiescence on one side or the other. If a minority in such case will secede rather than acquiesce, they make a precedent which in turn will divide and ruin them; for a minority of their own will secede from them whenever a majority refuses to be controlled by such minority. For instance, why may not any portion of a new confederacy a year or two hence arbitrarily secede again, precisely as portions of the present Union now claim to secede from it? All who cherish disunion sentiments are now being educated to the exact temper of doing this? Is there such perfect identity of interests among the States which compose a new Union as to produce harmony only and prevent renewed secession?

Plainly, the central idea of secession is the essence of anarchy. A majority held in restraint by constitutional checks and limitations, and always changing easily with the deliberate changes of popular opinions and sentiment, is the only true sovereign of a free people. Whoever rejects it, does of necessity fly to anarchy or to despotism. Unanimity is impossible. The rule of a minority, as a permanent arrangement, is wholly impracticable, so that, rejecting the majority principle, anarchy or despotism, in some form, is all that is left.

I do not forget the positions assumed by some, that constitutional questions are to be decided by the Supreme Court, nor do I deny that such decisions must be

binding in any case upon the parties to a suit, as to the object of that suit. While they are also entitled to very high respect and consideration in all parallel cases by all other departments of the government, and while it is obviously possible that such decisions may be erroneous in any given cases, still the evil of following it being limited to that particular case, with the chance that it may be overruled and never become a precedent for other cases, can better be borne than could the evils of a different practice. At the same time the candid citizen must confess that if the policy of the government upon the vital questions affecting the whole people is to be irrevocably fixed by the decisions of the Supreme Court, then the instant they are made in ordinary litigation between parties in personal actions, the people will have ceased to be their own, unless having to that extent practically resigned their government into the hands of that eminent tribunal.

Nor is there in this view any assault upon the court or the judges. It is a duty from which they may not shrink to decide cases of property brought before them, and it is no fault of theirs if others seek to turn their decisions to political purposes. One section of our country believes that slavery is right and ought to be extended, while the other believes it is wrong and ought not to be extended. This is our only substantial dispute.

The fugitive slave clause of the Constitution and the law for the suppression of the foreign slave trade are each as well enforced, perhaps, as any law can ever be enforced where the moral sense of the people imperfectly supports the law itself. The great body of the people abide by their dry legal obligations in both cases, and a few break over in each. This, I think, cannot be perfectly cured, and it would be worse in both cases after the separation of the sections than before. The foreign slave trade, now imperfectly suppressed, would be ultimately revived without restriction in one section, while fugitive slaves, now only partially surrendered, would not be surrendered at all by the other.

Physically speaking, we cannot separate. We cannot remove the respective sections from each other, nor build an impassable wall between them. A husband and wife may be divorced and go out of the presence and beyond the reach of each other, but the different parts of our country cannot do this. They cannot but remain face to face, and intercourse, either amicable or hostile, must continue between them. Is it possible, then, to make that intercourse more advantageous or more satisfactory after separation than before? Can aliens make treaties easier than friends can make laws? Can treaties be more faithfully enforced between aliens than laws can among friends? Suppose you go to war; you cannot fight always; and when after much loss on both sides, and no gain on either, you cease fighting, the identical questions as to terms of intercourse are again upon you.

This country, with its institutions, belongs to the people who inhabit it. Whenever they shall grow weary of the existing government they can exercise their constitutional right of amending, or their revolutionary right to dismember or overthrow it; and I cannot be ignorant of the fact that many worthy and patriotic citizens are desirous of having the national Constitution amended.

While I make no recommendation of any amendment, I fully recognize the full authority of the people over the whole subject, to be exercised in either of the modes prescribed in the instrument itself, and I should, under existing circumstances, favor rather than oppose a fair opportunity being afforded the people to

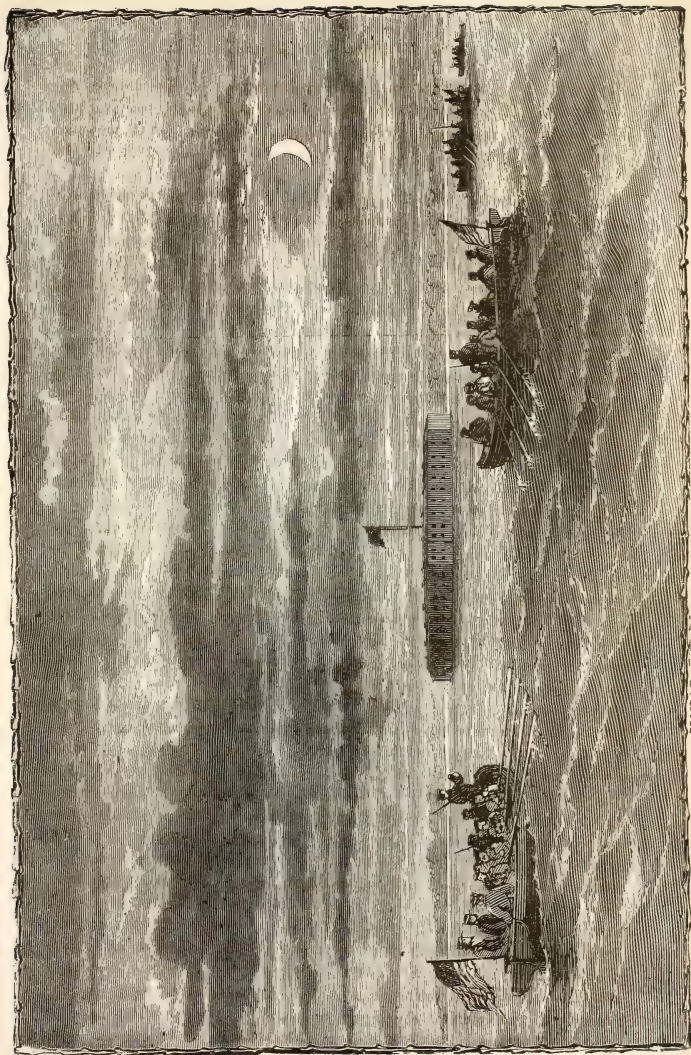
act upon it. I will venture to add, that to me the convention mode seems preferable, in that it allows amendments to originate with the people themselves, instead of only permitting them to take or reject propositions originated by others not especially chosen for the purpose, and which might not be such as they would wish to accept or refuse.

I understand that a proposed amendment to the Constitution, which amendment, however, I have not seen, has passed Congress—to the effect that the federal government shall never interfere with the domestic institutions of States, including that of persons held to service. To avoid misconstruction of what I have said, I depart from my purpose not to speak of particular amendments, so far as to say that holding such provision to be already implied in constitutional law, I have no objection to its being made an express and irrevocable one.

The Chief Magistrate derives all his authority from the people, and they have conferred none upon him to fix the terms for the separation of the States. The people themselves, also, can do this if they choose, but the Executive, as such, has nothing to do with it. His duty is to administer the present government as it came into his hands, and to transmit it unimpaired by him to his successor. Why should there not be a patient confidence in the ultimate justice of the people? Is there any better, or an equal hope in the world? In our present differences, is either party without faith of being in the right?

If the Almighty Ruler of nations, with his eternal truth and justice, be on your side of the North, or on yours of the South, that truth and justice will prevail by the judgment of this great tribunal. The American people, by the frame of the government under which we live, have wisely given their public servants but little power for mischief, and have with equal wisdom provided for the return of that little to their own hands at very short intervals. While the people retain their virtue and vigilance, no administration, by any extreme wickedness or folly, can very seriously injure the government in the short space of four years.

My countrymen, one and all, think calmly and well upon this whole subject. Nothing valuable can be lost by taking time. If there be an object to hurry any of you in hot haste to a step which you would never take deliberately, that object will be frustrated by taking time; but no good object can be frustrated by it. Such of you as are now dissatisfied still have the old Constitution unimpaired, and on the sensitive point, the laws are of your own framing under it, while the new administration will have no immediate power, if it would, to change either. If it were admitted that you who are dissatisfied hold the right side in the dispute, there is still no single good reason for precipitate action. Intelligence, patriotism, Christianity, with a firm reliance on Him who has never yet forsaken this favored land, are still competent to adjust in the best way all present difficulty. In your hands, my dissatisfied fellow-countrymen, and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. The government will not assail you. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in heaven to destroy the government, while I shall have the most solemn one to preserve, protect, and defend it. I am loth to close. We are not enemies but friends. We must not be enemies. Though passion may have strained, it must not break our bonds of affection. The mystic chords of memory, stretched from every battle field



FORT SUMTER.

and patriot's grave to every living heart and hearthstone all over this broad land, will yet swell the chorus of the Union, when again touched, as surely they will be, by the better angels of our nature.

Mr. Lincoln selected for his cabinet advisers, William H. Seward, of New York, Secretary of State; Salmon P. Chase, of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; Simon Cameron, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of War; Gideon Welles, of Connecticut, Secretary of the Navy; Caleb B. Smith, of Indiana, Secretary of the Interior; Montgomery Blair, of Maryland, Postmaster-General; Edward Bates, of Missouri, Attorney-General.

The pacific and conciliatory tone of the Inaugural was wholly lost upon the conspirators of the South. The day it was delivered, General P. T. Beauregard took formal command of the rebel forces in Charleston, and commenced operations looking to a formal siege of Fort Sumter. One week later the rebel Congress met at Montgomery, Alabama, and adopted a permanent constitution. "The prevailing ideas," said Vice-president Stephens, in expounding the principles of this new government, "entertained by Jefferson and most of the leading statesmen at the time of the formation of the old constitution were, that the enslavement of the African was in violation of the laws of nature; that it was wrong in principle, socially, morally, and politically. Our new government is founded upon exactly the opposite ideas; its foundations are laid, its corner stone rests, upon the great truth that the negro is not equal to the white man; that slavery, subordination to the superior race, is his natural and normal condition. This, our new government, is the first in the history of the world, based upon this great physical, philosophical, and moral truth." Meditating in his dungeon in Fort Warren, in Boston harbor, his government, "corner stone" and all, annihilated, and his confederates in office either vagabonds upon the earth or on trial for their lives,—how like bitter irony must all this seem to the great and misguided Georgia orator now!

The attention of the whole country was directed to the little garrison at Fort Sumter. On the 9th of April the President secretly despatched 8 vessels, mounting 26 guns, and carrying 1380 men, to relieve the garrison. The secret was poorly kept, for the authorities at Charleston were notified of it as soon as the fleet had sailed. On the 11th of April, General Beauregard demanded the surrender of the Fort before reinforcements should arrive. Major Anderson refused to comply. He was asked when he would surrender. His reply was

that if he did not receive controlling instructions from his government to the contrary, he would evacuate the fort by noon of the 15th. His provisions were entirely exhausted, with the exception of a small quantity of salt pork, and he must leave by that time or starve to death. On the morning of the 12th General Beauregard notified him that he should open the fire of his batteries on Fort Sumter in one hour from the time of his receiving notice. Accordingly at 4.30 A. M. on Friday, April 12, a terrific storm of shot and shell was opened upon the fort from all points. The little party in the fort retired to their bombproofs, leisurely took their breakfast together, and prepared for defence. They were divided into three equal reliefs, each to work the batteries for four hours. At 7 o'clock the batteries of Fort Sumter were opened in reply. From this time until Sunday, the 14th, the firing proceeded without intermission, night or day, on the part of the rebels. The fire of the fort was suspended at night. The barracks in the interior of the fort were set on fire by the hot shot that were thrown into them, and the magazine so exposed that it became necessary to throw a large part of the powder into the sea. The cartridges became exhausted, after using up for that purpose the sheets and blankets in the fort, and even the shirts of the men—the last biscuit had been eaten more than thirty-six hours before—the smoke of the burning barracks was so dense that the men were blinded, and were gasping for breath, with wet handkerchiefs over their mouths. At this stage the flagstaff of the fort was cut down by a shell. Seeing this, General Beauregard sent an officer to the fort, to inquire if they were ready to surrender. Terms of surrender were soon agreed upon, one stipulation of which was that Major Anderson should have permission to salute his flag before leaving the fort. In firing this salute the gun burst and killed a gunner, private Daniel Hough, of New York, the only life lost in the fort from the commencement of the siege. Major Anderson and his immortal little band of heroes were taken out to the fleet which lay outside the harbor, in full sight of the fort during the assault upon it, and were placed on board the *Baltic*, which immediately sailed for New York.

This open act of war infuriated the people of the North. The excitement was as intense as if every man had been aroused from sleep and found his house on fire. The President, on the 15th, issued a call for 75,000 men for three months, "to repossess the forts, places, and property which have been seized from the Union." He also convened a special session of Congress, to meet on the 4th of July. The

governors of Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Missouri, refused to furnish their quota of troops called for, but the deficiency was quickly filled by the consenting States. All the loyal States not only tendered men in unlimited numbers, but offered all the money that might be called for.

Virginia seceded on the 17th of April. The armory of Harper's Ferry, where there were 15,000 stand of arms, was at once seized by the troops of that State, and the commander of the navy yard at Norfolk, where there was an immense amount of the munitions of war, destroyed everything possible, to prevent it falling into the hands of the rebels, and evacuated that post.

Jefferson Davis issued a proclamation, inviting applications for privateers. This was answered by a proclamation from President Lincoln, declaring all the Southern ports blockaded, and stationing vessels of war at the entrance of every harbor. He also ordered the officers of the navy to seize the Southern privateers wherever they could find them, hang from the yard-arms such as were contumacious, and bring the more penitent ashore for trial. This order was never rescinded, but practically, and unfortunately, it remained a dead letter throughout the war.

On the 19th of April a Massachusetts and a Pennsylvania regiment reached Baltimore on their way to Washington. They were assaulted by a mob in the streets, and were fired upon from the houses. The railroad track was torn up, and the cars were stopped. The Pennsylvanians, being without arms, retreated and fled, and the Massachusetts troops were obliged to pass through on foot. Two of their number were killed, and eight wounded. This was the first blood shed in the war. For some weeks afterwards Baltimore was avoided, by sending the troops by water from Philadelphia to Annapolis. The charge of this service devolved upon General B. F. Butler, of Massachusetts who prosecuted the work with such energy and success as to elicit the unbounded admiration of the country. As soon as he had force enough in hand, he established a passage through Baltimore which was never after interrupted.

Early in May it became apparent that the rebels designed an attack on Washington. A large force, under command of General Beauregard, had been gathered in Virginia. On the 24th, the first actual movement into Virginia, to counteract their designs, was made by a regiment of Zouaves under Colonel Ellsworth. They landed at Alexandria, and while marching through the town, a secession flag

was noticed, floating from a staff on a public house. The colonel rushed into the house, and mounting to the roof, seized the flag; and while returning with it was met on the stairs by the owner of the house, James T. Jackson, and shot through the heart. The assassin was instantly shot dead by a companion who had accompanied his colonel. Alexandria and the surrounding country were then occupied and put in a state of defence, and a heavy body of troops sent forward towards Manassas Junction, to intercept communication between Harper's Ferry and Richmond.

During this month important steps were taken to counteract rebel operations in the State of Missouri. The State government was in the hands of the secessionists. Governor Jackson had formed, at Camp Jackson, St. Louis, a body of State troops, ostensibly for the purpose of preserving the peace, but really with the design of preventing the removal of the immense amount of arms and military stores in the United States arsenal at that place. The government forces at the arsenal were composed mostly of volunteers, and numbered something over 5,000 men. They were under the command of Captain Nathaniel Lyon, an officer of the regular army, a native of Ashford, Connecticut, and, as he afterwards proved himself, every inch a soldier. On the morning of the 10th he sallied out of the arsenal at the head of his forces, marched to Camp Jackson, surrounded it, and demanded the surrender of the troops there stationed. They at once threw down their arms, and as they were being escorted as prisoners of war back to the arsenal, an attempt was made by the mob to rescue them, which was unsuccessful. Captain Lyon ordered his soldiers to fire into the mob, which they did, killing twenty of them and wounding a large number. Another attack made upon Captain Lyon was repelled with a like result. The next day General Harney, commanding the department of Missouri, arrived at St. Louis, and made an agreement with General Price, commanding the State troops, that the former would suspend all further demonstrations, provided the latter would maintain peace. This arrangement was at once repudiated at Washington. General Harney was removed, and the command of the department of Missouri was placed in the stronger hands of Lyon, who was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general. General Lyon immediately took the most active measures to suppress the rebel conspiracy in the State. He seized all the arms and ammunition within his reach, and collecting fifteen hundred troops, proceeded with them to Jefferson City, the capital of the State. The rebel governor, Jack-

son, abandoned the capital on the approach of Lyon, and retired to a position near Booneville. Thither Lyon pursued and attacked him, on the 20th of June, and completely routed his forces. General Lyon returned to Springfield, and from this time to the 1st of August, was engaged in preparing to meet the large rebel force which had been collected in Arkansas and Southern Missouri, under the reckless Texan ranger, General Ben. McCullough, and were marching upon Springfield. This force numbered 23,000 men, and on the 10th of August were encamped on Wilson's Creek, twelve miles southwest of Springfield. General Lyon's effective force numbered less than 6,000 men. Weary days and sleepless nights he had waited in vain for reinforcements, and the time had now arrived when the salvation of his command depended upon some bold movement. He determined to surprise the enemy by a night attack. He accordingly moved out of Springfield on the afternoon of the 9th, and came in sight of the the enemy's camp-fires at one o'clock in the morning. Here his men halted and slept on their arms till daybreak, when they took the enemy entirely by surprise and attacked him with great gallantry. The battle raged with a doubtful result for several hours, when General Lyon's horse was shot under him, and he had received three serious wounds. At this juncture he directed the fragments of three regiments to charge the enemy with the bayonet. Their officers were disabled and they called for a leader. Lyon mounted another horse, and waving his hat, called upon them to follow him. Inspired by his example, they rushed forward, and impetuously drove the enemy before them. But in this charge the brave Lyon fell mortally wounded. He lived only long enough to express his consciousness that he must die. No purer or braver man ever gave his life to his country; and on the long roll of patriots whose memory will live forever, few names will stand more conspicuous than that of Nathaniel Lyon.

On the death of Lyon the command devolved on Major Sturgis. The enemy were repulsed at all points, and on the following morning the army retired in good order through Springfield to Rolla. If the battle of Wilson's Creek was not such a victory to the Union arms as was desirable, it was important in securing the safety of the army. If General Lyon had awaited an attack at Springfield, his command must have been destroyed or captured.

In this campaign General Lyon was very ably supported by Colonel Sigel, an accomplished German officer, who harassed the movements of the enemy at all points, and at Carthage, on the 5th of July, fought

a bloody but unsuccessful battle, with severe loss on both sides. Unfortunately at Springfield he failed to co-operate with General Lyon as was expected, but performed important service in assisting in the retreat to Rolla.

At Wheeling, Virginia, a convention of loyal men met on the 13th of May, declared the act withdrawing the State from the Union null and void, and proceeded to organize a new State, called Western Virginia. General McClellan, with a body of Ohio and Indiana troops, was ordered to proceed to Western Virginia, and sustain this movement of the loyal men. At Phillippi, on the 2d of June, he attacked a rebel force of 2,000 men, drove them from the town, and captured their camp equipage and seven hundred stand of arms. This was the opening battle of the war, and although it was not attended with a great loss of life, it was important as the first step towards reclaiming a sovereign State from the rebel power, and the first time that the raw troops of the North were put to trial. McClellan vigorously followed up the flying enemy, fought and defeated him again at Rich Mountain and Carrick's Ford, and by the 22d of July, when he turned over his command to General Rosecrans and proceeded to take a higher command at Washington, he had driven the enemy completely beyond the boundaries marked out for the new State, never to return, killed the rebel commander, General Garnett, and taken prisoner the second in command, and over one thousand soldiers besides.

The Union cause sustained a severe loss by the death, on the 3d of June, of Stephen A. Douglas, senator from Illinois. This remarkable man left his native State, Vermont, penniless, a minor, and an orphan, and settled in the State of Illinois. In the intervals of his laborious duty as a schoolmaster, he became proficient as a lawyer, rose rapidly through every grade of his profession, until at the early age of twenty-eight he was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court of the State. He left this position to take that of a member of the United States Congress, from which place he was soon transferred to the Senate, where he remained till he died. When the rebellion broke out, no man in the country saw clearer than he did that a war of such vast proportions was inaugurated that it would demand the whole physical power of the North to prosecute it. With an eloquence such as but few men in any age of the world have possessed, he exhorted his countrymen to banish party feelings and "rally to the support of our common country, its government and its flag." His last words were

in response to a question by his wife, whether he had any message to send his two absent sons. "Tell them," said the dying statesman, "to obey the laws and support the constitution of the United States."

On the 9th of June General Butler sent a strong detachment from Hampton and Newport News, under General Pierce, of Massachusetts, to attack the rebel fortifications at Big and Little Bethel, about eight miles distant. On approaching Little Bethel the enemy retreated, and General Pierce, incautiously following them up, was drawn into the range of a masked battery, which opened upon his forces with such deadly effect that they were obliged to retreat. In this action Captain Greble, of the regular army, and Theodore Winthrop, an aid of General Butler, and an accomplished scholar and writer, were among the killed.

On the 17th General Schenck, commanding the 1st Ohio regiment, was drawn into an ambuscade near Vienna, on the Alexandria and Hampshire railroad, and twelve of his men killed.

During this month General Banks took military possession of the city of Baltimore, and seized a large amount of arms and ammunition which were destined for the South. The police commissioners of the city protesting against this, he at once arrested them and sent them to Fort McHenry. The Legislature of the State was in the interest of the secessionists, and placed everything in the way of the government that they dared. Nothing but the presence of a strong military force prevented them from taking open ground for the rebellion.

The special session of Congress convened on the 4th of July, and remained in session until the 6th of August. All the measures recommended by the President for prosecuting war on a gigantic scale were promptly adopted. He was authorized to raise 500,000 men and borrow \$250,000,000. Stringent laws were also passed concerning conspiracies against the public peace, and confiscating property used for insurrectionary purposes. It was also provided that all slaves employed in aiding or abetting insurrection should be free.

It now became important to break up the rebel camp at Manassas Junction. For this purpose General Patterson was sent to Harper's Ferry to attack General Johnston, who had abandoned that place, but was encamped near it, and prevent him from uniting his forces with those of General Beauregard, at Manassas. General McDowell at the same time, crossed the Potomac at Washington, designing to attack the rebel army in front. He was not as well prepared to march as he

desired, but time was precious to him, for 10,000 of the 53,000 men under him had enlisted for only three months, and before the 1st of August their term of enlistment would have expired. His design was to reach Centreville, seven miles east of Manassas, on the 17th, and bring on a battle on the 19th. A delay of two days, caused by the inexperience of his troops and the obstructions of the road, gave the enemy ample time to perfect his defences. It was not until Saturday evening, July 20, that General McDowell was able to gather his forces firmly in hand at Centreville, to launch them upon the enemy the following morning. Between the two hostile armies was a small stream called Bull Run. A reconnoissance by General Tyler showed that Blackburn's Ford, one passage over the Run, was defended, as was the Stone Bridge on the Warrenton turnpike, the direct road from Centreville to Manassas. Indeed it was found that the Run was fortified at every assailable point, and it was therefore deemed advisable to make the attack at two different points at once.

At two o'clock on the morning of the 21st, the long roll was sounded, the troops were summoned to a hasty breakfast, and with three days rations in their knapsacks, were soon in position and on the march.

Colonel Richardson marched up the southern road which led from Centreville to Bull Run. General Tyler, with Colonel Hunter, took the northern road, which diverged, the two forming the letter V, with Centreville at the lowest point and Bull Run passing along the top. General McDowell and staff were with General Tyler. After advancing two miles, Colonel Hunter turned to the right, marching obliquely towards the Run, which he was to cross some four miles higher up and then come down upon the intrenched positions of the enemy on the other side. Colonel Miles was left at Centreville and on the road, with reserves which he was to bring up whenever they might be needed. General Tyler went directly forward to engage the enemy in front, and send reinforcements to Colonel Hunter whenever it should be seen that he was engaged.

At five o'clock in the morning the roads were covered with troops as far as the eye could reach, advancing and taking positions. The northern road was quite hilly, like all the surface of this section. After going out about three miles, they came to a point down which the road, leading through the forest, descends; then it proceeds, by a succession of rising and falling knolls, for a quarter of a mile, when it crosses a stone bridge, and then ascends, by a steady slope, to the

heights beyond. At the top of that slope the rebels had planted heavy batteries, and the woods below were filled with their troops and with concealed cannon. The troops proceeded down the road to the first of the small knolls mentioned, when the whole column halted. The 30-pounder Parrott gun, which has a longer range than any other in the army, was planted directly in the road. Captain Ayres' battery was stationed in the woods, a little to the right. The 1st Ohio and 2d New York regiments were thrown into the woods in advance, on the left. The 69th New York, the 1st, 2d and 3d Connecticut regiments, were ranged behind them, and the 2d Wisconsin was thrown into the woods on the right.

At about half-past six o'clock the 30-pounder threw two shells directly into the battery at the summit of the slope, on the opposite height, one of which struck and exploded directly in the midst of the battery, and occasioned the utmost havoc and confusion. Captain Ayres threw ten or fifteen shot and shell from his battery into the same place. But both failed to elicit any reply. Men could be seen moving about the opposite slope, but the batteries were silent. At eight o'clock Colonel Richardson's column was at Bull Run, with a rebel battery in front of him, upon which he opened a fire with heavy cannon, but received no reply.

Colonel Richardson kept up his fire at intervals, but no response was made. Colonel Tyler also threw out an occasional shot, but the enemy was silent. Away on the rising ground to the right, Colonel Hunter's axemen cleared his way through the forest.

At eleven o'clock the 1st Ohio and 2d New York, which were lying in the wood on the left, were ordered to advance. Passing out of the road and climbing a fence into a wood opposite, which they had barely approached, however, when they were met by a tremendous discharge of a four-gun battery, planted at the left, in the woods, mainly for the purpose of sweeping the road perpendicularly and the open field on its right, by which alone troops could pass forward to the opposite bank. They were staggered for a moment, and received orders to retire. Captain Ayres' battery was advanced a little, so as to command this battery, and by twenty minutes of vigorous play upon it, silenced it completely.

Colonel Hunter's guns on the opposite height, over a mile to the right of Tyler's column, now opened a brisk fire. He was answered by batteries there, and then followed the sharp, rattling volleys of musketry as their infantry became engaged. The firing was now in-

cessant. Hunter had come upon them suddenly, and formed his line of battle in an open field at the right of the road. The enemy drew up to oppose him, but he speedily drove them to retreat, and followed them up with the greatest vigor and rapidity.

At noon long lines of dense dust were seen rising from the roads leading from Manassas, and, with the glass, it was clearly perceived that they were raised by the constant and steady stream of reinforcements which continued to pour in nearly the whole day. The 69th, 79th, 2d, and 8th New York, the 1st, 2d, and 3d Connecticut, and the 2d Wisconsin, were brought forward in advance of the wood and marched across the field to the right, to go to Colonel Hunter's support. They crossed the intervening stream and drew up in a small open field, separated from Colonel Hunter's column by a dense wood, which was filled with batteries and infantry.

Our guns continued to play upon the woods which concealed the enemy, and aided materially in clearing the way for the advance. Colonel Hunter pushed the rebels back from point to point. Now the battle appeared to have reached its climax. Hunter's and Heintzelman's divisions were deep in the enemy's position, and our force, excepting the 2d Brigade, was well at work. The discharges of artillery and musketry caused a continuous and unbroken roar, which sometimes swelled tumultuously to terrific crashes, but never lulled. On the heights in front, bodies of infantry were plainly seen driving with fury one against the other, and slowly pressing towards the left—another proof that our advance was resisted in vain. At one moment the rebels seemed determined to risk all, rather than retreat. Many a regiment was brought to meet our onset, and all were swept back with the same impetuous charges. Prisoners who were subsequently brought in admitted that some of our troops, especially the 71st New York regiment, literally mowed down and annihilated double their number. Two Alabama regiments, in succession, were cut right and left by the 71st.

At one P. M. the flanking column was fully discernible, and the junction of our forces was evidently not far distant. The gradual abandonment of their positions by the rebels could not be doubted. At some points they fled precipitately, but in most cases moved regularly to the rear. It is probable that they only deserted one strong post for another even stronger, and that however far we might have crushed them back, we should still have found them entrenched and fortified to the last—even to Manassas itself. But they had positively

relinquished the entire line in which they had arrayed themselves against Tyler's division, except one fortified elevation at the left, which could and should have been carried by the 2d brigade an hour before. The enemy retreated before Hunter and Heintzelman, forsaking all excepting one powerful earthwork with lofty embankments, upon the highest ground of the field. It was this work which, later in the day, was stormed by the Zouaves and other regiments, and which, in spite of a daring and intrepidity which rebel prisoners spoke of with amazement, resisted their charge. But other important works had been carried by the 3d and 4th brigades, so that little appeared to remain for victory but to perfect the union of the two columns, and to hold the ground which had been won.

At half-past one the fire slackened on both sides for several minutes. Although the movements of our own troops were mainly hidden, a peculiar activity could be seen among the enemy at the spot where they had been most vehemently repulsed by Heintzelman. A long line of apparently fresh regiments was brought forward and formed at the edge of a grove through which our men had penetrated. Four times this line was broken, and reformed by its officers, who rode behind, and drove back those who fled, with their swords. A fifth time it was shattered, and reformed, but could not be made to stand fast, and was led back to the fortified ground. This afforded those who looked on from the lower battle-field a new ground for the conviction that triumph would be with us.

For nearly an half an hour the enemy languished, and our movements seemed clogged by some mysterious obstacle. Schenck's brigade was brought forward a few hundred rods on the open road. In some places the aspect of the field was truly appalling. The enemy's dead lay strewn so thickly that they rested upon one another, the ground refusing space to many that had fallen. Our men had suffered much and lay around in great numbers.

At half-past two the attention of those who gazed upon the dead was quickly turned from these awful results of the battle to the imminent hazard of its renewal. Down on the left, which had so long been exposed, a new line of troops moved with an alacrity that indicated entire freshness. As they swept around to the very woods upon which the 2d brigade rested, the artillery from the last entrenchments they held upon this field—that which had been overrun betimes by our idle troops—opened with new vigor. Grape and round shot, most accurately aimed, struck the ground before, behind, and each side of

General Schenck and the officers under him. The Ohio regiments were somewhat sheltered by a cleft in the road, but the New York 2d was more exposed. General Schenck was in great danger, to which he seemed perfectly insensible, riding always through the hottest of the fire, as if nothing more serious than a shower of paper pellets threatened him.

The work progressed. Captain Alexander, with the engineers, had completed a bridge across the Run, over which our ambulances were to pass for the wounded, and by which our artillery could be planted in new positions. Even then, although that stealthy column was winding, awkwardly for us, about our left, no person dreamed that the day was lost. The men of the brigade, at least, were firm, although they began to suffer severely. Horrible gaps and chasms appeared once or twice in the ranks of the New York 2d. Four men were torn in pieces by a single round of grape shot, and their blood was flung in great splashes over all who stood near. The carnage around seemed more terrific than it really was, so hideous was the nature of the wounds.

At four o'clock the general battle seemed to have subsided; nay, almost entirely to have ceased; and nothing but an occasional great gun and isolated flirt of musketry proclaimed its continuance in any quarter. In their ignorance of the extent of the field, our forces imagined they had won a victory. They had shown greater dash and steadiness than the enemy from first to last, and while by far the most exposed, had inflicted a much heavier slaughter than they had undergone themselves. The whole aspect within our lines, or rather within the boundaries of our brigades, wore the look of triumph. Our enemies, wherever we had met them hand to hand, in anything like open opportunity, had sunk before us; all their batteries immediately within our reach had been silenced; but, what was infinitely more conclusive, General McDowell, the commander-in-chief, now came jingling on the field, waving first his glove and then his hat, calling his men "brave boys," and telling them, with the grand air of Cæsar, that they had won the day.

After joyful shouts had gone down the wind after him, our tired legions flung themselves, by one accord, upon the ground, to take a brief snack at their haversacks, and to catch a few minutes' repose before making their final dispositions for the day. Perhaps no army which had won a victory was ever more fatigued, and the men, as they lay upon their sides and rehearsed the horrors of the day, wondered



RAISING THE AMERICAN FLAG ON FORT SUMTER.

how they had held out so long. Many, however, had not even this repose, for they were bearing off their wounded comrades to the hospital, and others were searching for their sworn brethren-in-arms among the dead. These lay about in the most fantastic shapes, some absolutely headless, some represented by a gory trunk alone, some with smiles, and some with rage upon their lips, as they grasped their bent and curiously twisted weapons, and some actually rolled up like a ball. Whoever would study the eccentricities of carnage, might here have graduated through all the degrees of horror, to a full experience at once.

Nearly the whole of our army was now grouped pretty well together. The brigades which had made the circuit against the enemy's side had been joined by those which had fought straight on; and a glance at the field showed that the whole breadth of our battle had not spread over a mile and a half. An observation from Professor Lowe's balloon would have shown that, with all our prowess and heroic daring, we had merely cut a hole in the small end of the enemy's plateau of batteries, and that his rear, which General McDowell imagined he had turned, overhung us in massive wings, which still remained untouched.

Suddenly, while the wearied army were at rest, the roar of battle broke out again in every direction, and batteries which had been thought mute forever, now opened with redoubled fury. The most terrific yells from the enemy accompanied the renewal of the conflict, and it became evident that, instead of having yielded to the untoward fortunes of the day, they had only been refreshing themselves while pouring new regiments into their lower works.

The Burnside brigade was still upon the field, where they had received from General McDowell the news of victory, and consequently, had heard, with the surprise that was equal among all of our brigades, the angry re-opening of the fight.

Suddenly, a long way up the rise, and issuing from the enemy's extreme left, appeared, slowly debouching into sight, a dense column of infantry, marching with slow and solid step. Rod by rod the massive column lengthened, not breaking off at the completion of a regiment, but still pouring on, and on, and on, till one regiment had lengthened into ten. Even then the stern tide did not pause. Still the solemn picture swelled its volume, till the ten regiments had doubled into twenty, and had taken the formation of three sides of a hollow square.

The martial tide flowed on, the lengthening regiments growing into

thirty thousand men, with a mass of black cavalry in its centre, the whole moving on with the solemn step of fate. This was war in all its pomp and glory, as well as in its strength, and our jaded army at once comprehended that they were beaten. In vain did their thoughts turn quickly upon Patterson. It would not do. Johnston was there before him, with his cool, fresh thousands, and the battle was lost. That steady and united host outnumbered the whole of our worn and staggering columns, and it penetrated them with resistless power.

Near the top of the hill, the rebel cavalry, having completely circumvented our left, had charged in among a crowd of wounded and stragglers who surrounded a small building which had been used for a hospital. Nothing but the unexpected courage of a considerable number of unorganized men, many of them civilians, who seized the readiest weapons and repelled the enemy, saved that point from being occupied.

At 5 P. M. proofs of the panic which had stricken the army were fully disclosed. From the distant hills, our troops, disorganized, scattered, pallid with a terror which had no just cause, came pouring along, trampling down some, and spreading the contagion of their fear among all. It was even then a whirlwind which nothing could resist.

In the race from a fancied danger, all divisions and all regiments were mingled. There was not even an attempt to cover the retreat of Tyler's division. With Heintzelman's it was better; Lieutenant Drummond's cavalry troop keeping firm line, and protecting the artillery until its abandonment was imperatively ordered. The extent of its disorder was unlimited. Regulars and volunteers shared it alike. A mere fraction of our artillery was saved. Whole batteries were left upon the field, and the cutting off of others was ordered when the guns had already been brought two miles or more from the battle ground, and were as safe as they would be in Washington. A perfect frenzy was upon almost every man. Some cried piteously to be lifted behind those who rode on horses, and others sought to clamber into wagons, the occupants received them with bayonets. All sense of manhood seemed to be forgotten.

Drivers of heavy wagons dashed down the steep road, reckless of the lives they endangered on the way. Even the sentiment of shame had gone. Some of the better men had tried to withstand the rush, and cried out against the flying troops, calling them "cowards, poltroons, brutes," and reviling them for so degrading themselves, espe-

cially when no enemy was near. Insensible to the epithets, the run-aways only looked relieved, and sought renewed assurances that their imagined pursuers were not upon them. Every impediment to flight was cast aside. All was lost to that army, even its honor.

The reserves left with Colonel Miles at Centreville were unable to fully check the retreating crowd, but they did much to restore order, till it was apparent that the enemy were in no condition to take advantage of their success by pursuit.

The great error of the campaign which ended in this deplorable affair, was the failure to occupy Manassas in May, when Alexandria was occupied. Had this been done, the rebel army would have been held on the line of the Rappahannock. But that which most deranged the calculations of General Scott, who planned the campaign, was the failure of General Patterson to retain the forces of General Johnston in the valley of the Shenandoah, near Harper's Ferry. General Patterson had a force of 23,000 men to hold in check a rebel force believed not to have exceeded 15,000 men. Yet the rebels succeeded in imposing upon Patterson the belief that they had 40,000 men, and fairly paralyzed him with fear, while they, fresh and unexhausted, suddenly threw themselves, at a critical and decisive moment, upon our wearied and bleeding columns, near the close of the memorable day at Manassas.

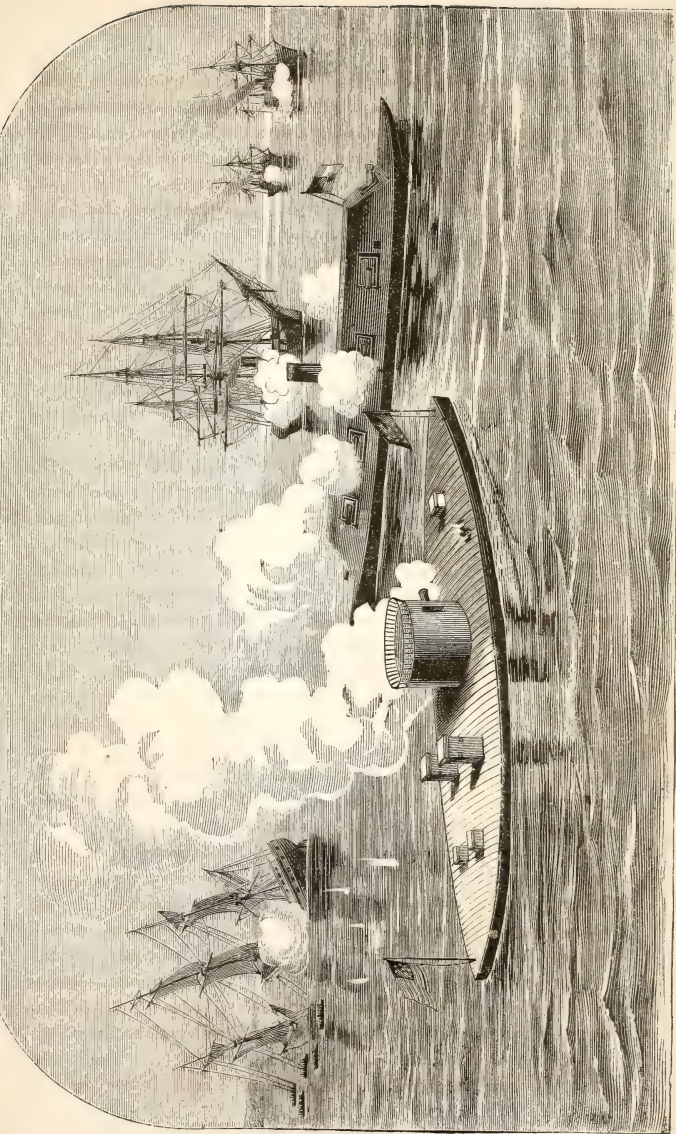
This unexpected disaster had a most depressing effect upon the spirits of the North, and elated the South to a pitch of intolerable audacity and presumption. In the midst of criminations and recriminations as to where the responsibility rested, the loved and honored veteran, General Winfield Scott, the hero of two wars, who had the responsible charge of all army movements, but who was weighed down with the infirmities of old age almost to the level of childhood, requested that the command of the army of the Potomac might be placed in the hands of General George B. McClellan. General McClellan was at once appointed. He was then but thirty-four years of age. He had won the friendship of General Scott by important services in the battles of the valley of Mexico, and the country was then ringing with his praises for the masterly manner in which he had restored the Union authority in Western Virginia. He reached Washington on the 26th of July, and on the 27th assumed the duties of his command. He found the army little better than a mob, and the government and people alarmed for the safety of the capital. His first care was to restore order to the army. His next was to put the capital in a state of defence, by the erection of a system of earthworks, be-

hind which a small force could hold a large assailing force in check. Then he arranged his army for active field operations. From this time until the 31st day of October, when General Scott retired from active service, and General McClellan was appointed commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, with headquarters at Washington, General McClellan devoted himself with unsurpassed industry to the great duties that devolved upon him.

During the summer, the commerce of the country was subjected to great damage by the privateers of the South. The most noted of these, the *Sumter* and the *Jeff Davis*, carried on their depredations almost in sight of our seaboard cities. They were greatly aided, if not encouraged, by the maritime powers of Europe, all of whom accorded the South belligerent rights, which included all the rights of asylum that were necessary for procuring supplies for the prosecution of their nefarious business. The only right which the privateers were deprived of in European ports, was that of selling their prizes. The vessels they captured were therefore robbed of everything movable of value, and burned at sea. By the end of August more than one hundred merchant vessels were captured, and in this way destroyed.

On the 26th of August, a fleet of six heavy frigates and gunboats, and a number of transports, left Fortress Monroe and sailed for Hatteras Inlet, a noted refuge for privateers. Commodore Stringham commanded the fleet, and General B. F. Butler the troops. They reached the inlet on the 27th, and at once attacked the fort, which they compelled to capitulate on the 29th. The commander of the fort, Commodore Barron, was taken prisoner, together with 715 officers and men, and they were all carried to New York. A large amount of ammunition and one thousand stand of arms were the prizes of this capture. This place was the key to Albemarle Sound, and was at once possessed and fortified by order of General Butler.

At this time the attention of the country was directed to Missouri. On the death of Lyon, the Union forces were thrown upon the defensive. General Fremont, who had taken command of that department, on the 31st of August issued a proclamation, placing the State under martial law, and for the first time in the history of the war, held over the slaveholders the threat of the emancipation of their slaves. He defined the lines of the army of occupation, and added, "All persons who shall be taken with arms in their hands within those lines, shall be tried by court martial, and, if found guilty, will be shot. The property, real and personal, of all persons in the State of Missouri, who



MONITOR.

FIRST ENGAGEMENT BETWEEN IRON-CLAD VESSELS.

MEMBRAC.

shall take up arms against the United States, or who shall be directly proven to have taken active part with their enemies in the field, is declared to be confiscated to the public use; and their slaves, if any they have, are hereby declared free men."

This proclamation by Fremont alarmed even President Lincoln, and he at once ordered it to be modified to conform to the act of Congress, which sanctioned the emancipation only of such slaves as were actually engaged by the rebels in military service.

The rebel forces now literally swarmed over Kentucky and Missouri. At Springfield, Missouri, Colonel Mulligan, with a force of about 4,000 men, was attacked on the 10th of September by the rebel General Price, at the head of 25,000 men. For ten days the determined heroes resisted the siege, but were then obliged to surrender prisoners of war. General Fremont set out from St. Louis with a competent force to dislodge Price from Springfield, and drive him out of the State. As he approached Springfield, Price fled, and Fremont took possession of the place on the 29th of October. Political intrigues, however, which had been at work against Fremont since the publication of his emancipation proclamation, had finally done their work, and this gallant officer, now that he had overcome all difficulties and was prepared to follow up his successes and clear the State of the rebel armies, was superseded and ordered to transfer his command to General Hunter. This was on the 2d day of November.

The battle of Ball's Bluff, on the Upper Potomac, on the 21st of October, was most disastrous to the Union arms. At Leesburg, near this place, there was a strong rebel force, which General Stone deemed it important to reconnoitre, to ascertain their position and numbers. He accordingly crossed the Potomac with 1900 men, but unfortunately made no provision for recrossing in case of disaster. He was attacked by an overwhelming force, and after a fierce struggle, lasting a whole day, was obliged to retreat. Reaching the river and finding no means to cross, the men were crowded into the river, and many were drowned and others shot in the water while attempting to escape by swimming. More than 200 were killed or drowned at this place. Among the killed was the brave Colonel E. D. Baker, United States senator from Oregon, who volunteered to fight for his country during the recess of Congress, and fell a martyr to his patriotic zeal.

With the exception of this fight, and an unimportant collision at Pensacola, at Harper's Ferry, at Frederickton, Missouri, and at Phil-

lippi, in Western Virginia, there were no military events during this month.

On the 1st of November, General McClellan took charge of the armies of the United States, General Scott having withdrawn wholly from active life.

On the 29th of October, an immense military and naval expedition, consisting of 84 vessels, carrying 20,000 men, left Hampton Roads for Port Royal Harbor, South Carolina. The military were under command of General T. W. Sherman, and the navy was commanded by Captain Samuel F. Dupont. On the 4th of November, the expedition reached its destination, and found that two heavily constructed fortifications had been formed to protect the entrance of the harbor. On the 7th, the plan of attack upon these forts having been agreed upon, the fleet was put in motion. Sixteen selected vessels formed in a line and swiftly sailed around a circle between the forts, delivering their fire alternately at each fort as they passed. This novel mode of attack was completely successful. In three hours after the first gun was fired, the forts were rendered untenable and were evacuated, the occupants fleeing into the interior. Not a vessel of the fleet was seriously injured, and only eight sailors were killed. This victory was an immense advantage to the Union cause. It provided the best harbor on the Southern coast, as a naval rendezvous, and furnished a strong position about midway between Savannah and Charleston. Beaufort and all the adjacent islands and towns were immediately taken possession of.

On the 20th of November, a fleet of twenty-five old whale ships left New London harbor, loaded with stone. They were taken to the entrance of Charleston harbor, and there sunk, for the purpose of blockading that harbor. This plan of blockading proved ineffectual, and was never afterwards repeated.

At Belmont, Missouri, on the 7th of November, a sharp fight occurred between the Union forces under Generals Grant and McClelland, and the rebels encamped at that place. The result was a loss of about 600 men on each side, and the withdrawal of our troops to Cairo, Illinois, from which place they first set out.

A few days prior to the assembling of Congress in December, an event occurred which gravely affected our relations with Great Britain. Early in November, John Slidell, of Louisiana, and James Y. Mason, of Virginia, sailed from Charleston for Havana, for the purpose of intercepting the British steamer Trent, and taking passage in that ves-

sel for Europe. They were the accredited ministers from the rebel government to the courts of France and Great Britain, and their business was to seek the recognition of the independence of their government from those powers. They embarked on the Trent, and when near the Bermudas the Trent was overtaken by the United States frigate San Jacinto, commanded by Captain Wilkes, was forcibly stopped, Slidell, Mason, and all their attendants were seized by an armed force sent by Captain Wilkes for that purpose, in defiance of the protest of the officers of the Trent, and carried as prisoners on board the San Jacinto. When the San Jacinto reached the United States, the prisoners were at once consigned to Fort Warren, in Boston harbor. The people with great enthusiasm applauded the act of Captain Wilkes, and the Secretary of the Navy, in his official report, distinctly justified the act; but the administration were unable to reconcile it with recognized principles of the law of nations, and on receiving a vigorous demand for redress from the British authorities, they released the prisoners, and sent them on board a British vessel to be taken to Europe.

On the assembling of Congress, measures were at once adopted to meet the terrible exigencies of the day. Unlimited power was conferred on the President to raise men and money to prosecute the war, and public sentiment fully sustained the representatives of the people. An enormous fleet of iron-clad gunboats for coast and river service was ordered, for the first time, by this Congress.

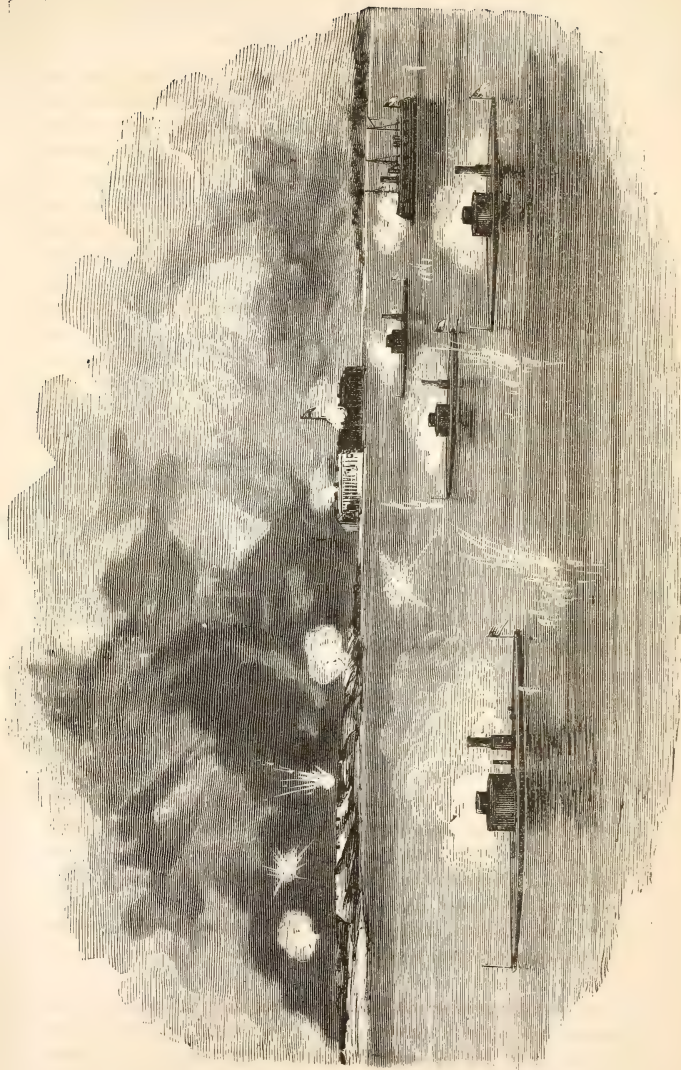
The year 1862 opened by a suspension of specie payments by all the banks of the Union. The treasury department was prepared to supply the place of the bank currency by circulating notes of the government, which were a legal tender for the payment of debts. A scheme for a national system of free banking was also adopted, which has finally supplanted all the State banks, as it was intended it should do. The winter season had suspended all great military operations; but in Kentucky, Missouri, and Virginia, collisions between detached forces were frequent, but indecisive. An exception to this should be made in the battle of Mill Spring, Kentucky, fought on the 19th of January, between the rebels under Generals Zollicoffer and Crittenden, and the Union forces under General Thomas. Zollicoffer was killed, his army completely routed, and some 1200 horses and mules, and a large amount of arms and ammunition rewarded the victors. This victory laid open the route into East Tennessee, which the rebel generals were guarding.

Early in February the army under General U. S. Grant, and the naval flotilla under command of Captain (since Rear-Admiral) A. H. Foote, were ready for active movements in Kentucky and Tennessee. Their first demonstration was upon Fort Henry, upon the Tennessee River. Captain Foote was ordered to sail up that river to the fort, and General Grant was to coöperate by land. The naval forces reached there on the 6th, and without waiting the arrival of the army, fire was at once opened upon the fort, and in an hour and a quarter the garrison surrendered.

Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland River, a much larger and stronger work, garrisoned by 20,000 men, was next invested, and fire was opened upon it on the 13th. The gunboats at this place had no success. The batteries were so high that they sent plunging shot into the vessels, which were disabled, and a large number of the crews were killed or wounded. Among the wounded was Captain Foote, who received injuries from which he never fully recovered. The fighting was then pursued by the land forces, and for two days it raged with terrible fury. Twice the enemy came out from their defences and attacked Grant's forces with deadly effect. On the afternoon of the 15th, the advantage seemed to be with them, and many of Grant's officers were despondent. Not so with their general. At the darkest moment he ordered General C. F. Smith and General Lew. Wallace each to storm such points of the enemy's works as he designated, and to carry them "at whatever cost." These brave men executed their orders in a shower of bullets that seemed like the heaviest rain. The cost was great, but the points were gained. That night the rebel generals, Buckner, Floyd, and Pillow, held a council, and at the dawn of day, as General Grant was preparing to follow up the advantages which he had gained, they sent a messenger to him to appoint commissioners to agree upon terms of surrender. Grant's reply has become historic. "No terms other than unconditional surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works."

The reply of General Buckner was the acceptance of what he styled the "ungenerous and unchivalrous terms." This surrender included 13,000 prisoners, 3,000 horses, and a corresponding number of arms, etc.

The rivers Tennessee and Cumberland were thus thrown open. The former is navigable by steamers to Florence, Alabama, 275 miles, and by boats some 250 miles further. The latter is navigable to Nashville, Tennessee, 200 miles, by steamer, and by boats 300 miles fur-



ATTACK ON FORTS SUMTER AND WAGNER.

ther. The advantage the occupation of these rivers gave the Union arms is incalculable. An immediate advance was made upon Nashville, which was occupied by General Buell, without resistance, and the whole country in the vicinity soon passed into the control of the Union forces. In fact, the entire State of Kentucky, and Missouri also, were abandoned by the rebel armies.

The rebels, however, still held several strong places in the islands of the Mississippi River, which they had exhausted their ingenuity in fortifying. The most formidable place was Island No. 10, which was destined to give the Union forces serious trouble. This island was invested by a land force under General Pope, and a flotilla of gunboats under Captain Foote, early in March, and after a desperate resistance, finally capitulated on the 7th of April.

The rebel force that invaded Missouri was driven into Arkansas, and at Pea Ridge, in this State, on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of March, was fought a most desperate battle, between the Union army, under Generals Curtis and Sigel, and the rebels under Generals Van Dorn, Price and McCullough. The battle raged for three days, with alternate successes on both sides, when the enemy were finally driven from the field. In this battle the rebel General McCullough was killed.

A powerful expedition, under command of General A. E. Burnside, set sail from Fortress Monroe on the 12th of January, bound for the coast of North Carolina, and on the 7th of February had recovered from the severe storm it encountered so far as to be able to attack the works on Roanoke Island, in the narrow channel between Pamlico and Albemarle Sound. The attack by water was seconded by a land force, which carried a portion of the works by storm. The works were taken possession of, and the garrison surrendered as prisoners of war. General Burnside immediately proceeded up the Sound, and occupied Edenton, Elizabeth City, and other places accessible, and on the 14th of March, fought the enemy at Newbern, and took possession of that city.

A general plan of operations was now agreed upon at Washington. The rebellious States were to be surrounded, and the rebellion crushed as if in the folds of a vast anaconda. The Western Department was placed under command of General Halleck; the Department of the South, comprising South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, under General Hunter; the Department of the Gulf, comprising the coast of the Gulf of Mexico west of Pensacola Harbor, and the Gulf States, under General Butler; the country east of the Western Department and west of

Virginia was called the Mountain Department, and placed under General Fremont; and the Department of the Potomac under General McClellan.

On the 26th of February, General Banks, commanding the right wing of the Army of the Potomac, crossed the Potomac at Harper's Ferry, and encamped at Charlestown. On the 6th of March, the direct advance was made from Washington. Centreville, Manassas and Fairfax Court House were occupied, and on the 4th of April, General McClellan, having turned South and concentrated the best portion of his army at Fortress Monroe, left that place for Yorktown, on the direct route to Richmond.

A striking peculiarity in the navy at this time was the adoption and extensive introduction of the plan of protecting vessels with iron armor. The world had hitherto known little or nothing of this novel principle, and although a few iron-clad vessels had been built in England and France, the first test of their utility and power, in a contest where vessels of this character were opposed, remained to be furnished by this country. This test was afforded in the contest between the Merrimac and the Monitor in Hampton Roads, on the 9th of March. When the rebels seized upon the Norfolk Navy Yard, they captured a number of government vessels, and among them the new and powerful frigate Merrimac. This vessel they cut down and remodelled into a monster iron-clad, with a roofed top, and a tremendous beak of steel, like the "rostrum" of an ancient Roman galley; and rendered thus secure, she was sent out from Norfolk, on the 8th, with several smaller craft, to attack the Federal fleet in the Roads. The experiment was successful; the frigate Cumberland was sunk with nearly all on board, the Congress set on fire and destroyed, and the Minnesota run aground and crippled. The utmost consternation prevailed at Fortress Monroe and Newport News. A renewal of the attack next day was of course looked for, and the gloomiest anticipations were cherished. But an iron-clad nondescript, the result of the inventive genius of the distinguished Captain Ericsson, had been in course of construction in New York for a short time previous. Seemingly as if for the purpose of meeting the very emergency which occurred, the work on this vessel had been hurried forward, and the strange structure got ready for service. On the evening of the 8th of March, under the command of Lieutenant J. L. Worden, she arrived at Fortress Monroe, and the next morning when the Merrimac made her re-appearance and renewed the attack on the Minnesota, this "cheese-box on a raft," as the

Monitor was contemptuously called, went forth single-handed to meet the rampant and powerful foe. It was, figuratively, David with a sling and a few stones from the brook, going out to single combat with the giant Goliath armed with ponderous sword and spear. Surprise and astonishment, it may be conceived, occupied the minds of all eye-witnesses of the singular spectacle, but especially were the foe taken aback when the diminutive craft, scarcely more than a hundred feet long, her mailed deck but a foot or two from the water, with a single revolving turret armed with only two large guns, boldly approached and entered upon a contest as novel as it was persistent and fierce. After a rapid interchange of shots, the Merrimac perceiving the futility of trying to destroy her small antagonist by that method, attempted to run her down; but in this also she failed, while suffering material injury herself in the encounter. On the other hand, the Monitor, from her inferior size and consequent capacity of being handled with rapidity, was able to steam around her bulky foe, planting hundred-pound shots in rapid succession against the Merrimac's most vulnerable parts, and, finally, after a protracted engagement, succeeding in crippling her powerful adversary, so that the Merrimac was forced to retire from the contest and be conveyed back to Norfolk for repairs. This naval encounter, so novel in its nature, and remarkable in its results, attracted universal attention at home and abroad, and was the means of initiating the most radical changes in naval architecture and warfare. The noble little monitor subsequently (December 31st of the same year) foundered in a gale off Cape Hatteras. After the surrender of Norfolk, and finding that the Merrimac could not be taken up the James River, she was destroyed by the rebels on the 11th of May, to prevent her from falling into the hands of the Union forces.

Turning to Tennessee, events of great importance are there progressing at this time. After the capture of Fort Donelson, General Grant pushed forward his army to gain a foothold where he could cut off communications between Western Tennessee and the Eastern and Southern States. Ordering General Buell to join him from Nashville, he occupied Pittsburg Landing, on the Tennessee River, preparatory to an attack upon the rebel army at Corinth. At that place the best army of the South was encamped, under the command of their ablest general, Albert Sidney Johnston, who was assisted by Generals Beauregard, Hardee, Bragg, Cheatham, Polk, and Breckinridge. Johnston determined to attack Grant before Buell could join him, designing, if

he defeated him, to push forward and crush Buell also. Accordingly, early in the morning of the 6th of April, the rebel army, 60,000 strong, surprised General Grant by a powerful attack upon his lines. The contest lasted through the day, and until night separated the combatants. The Union forces were defeated at every point, after a most desperate resistance, and driven to the river under the shelter of their gunboats. They lost their camp, camp equipage, and about half their field artillery. The slaughter on both sides was dreadful. Soon after noon, the rebel general-in-chief, Johnston, fell, mortally wounded, and the command devolved upon General Beauregard. That night the rebels occupied General Grant's camp, but were allowed no rest, for the gunboats kept up an unceasing fire upon them. The army of General Buell arrived in the evening, and in the morning were fresh and ready for the fight. They opened the fight early, and soon regained the ground lost the day before, and repulsed the enemy, who retired in disorder to Corinth. The numbers engaged on each side were about equal, and the losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners also about the same, viz., about 12,000. This battle is usually styled the battle of Shiloh, after a small church of that name situated between the two armies.

General Halleck now assumed command, being superior in rank to Grant and Buell, pursued the enemy to Corinth, and laid such close siege to that place, that the enemy were obliged to evacuate it on the 28th of May. In the meantime, Memphis having been captured by the Mississippi flotilla under Commodore Davis, the river to Vicksburg and the whole of Western Tennessee and Northern Mississippi was in the undisputed possession of the Union armies.

Early in April a fleet of armed steamers, and twenty bomb-schooners, carrying mortars for fifteen-inch shells, arrived at the mouth of the Mississippi, destined for the capture of New Orleans. The whole fleet was under the command of Commodore David G. Farragut, the bomb vessels under command of Commodore David D. Porter, and the land forces on board were commanded by General B. F. Butler.

Seventy-five miles below New Orleans, situated on opposite banks, were two strong forts, Jackson and St. Philip. Across the river, at a point where the fire of the two forts could be most effectually concentrated, was a heavy chain, which the rebel engineers supposed could not be broken, and which, in their opinion, obstructed the passage of vessels of war. Heavy land batteries also lined the banks of the river near the forts. On the 18th of April Farragut opened the whole

power of his fleet upon the lower fort, Jackson. For six days a shower of shot and shell was rained upon the fort, such as, perhaps, the world had never seen. Still the fort held out without any perceptible injury. Finally, on the 23d, Farragut determined to make a united attack, and in his determined language, to "conquer or to be conquered." He visited every vessel of his fleet, to animate his men, and to personally superintend the preparations for the preservation of life. At two o'clock on the following morning, the fleet weighed anchor, broke through the chain, and were abreast the forts before they were discovered. A tremendous fire was now opened on both sides. At the same time a large rebel fleet of iron-clads and gunboats advanced to the conflict from above, and our fleet seemed literally cast into a furnace of fire. A large fire-raft was pushed against the flagship of the Commodore, but did no damage. Of the whole fleet, only one, the Varuna, was sunk, and four obliged to retire. The rest of the fleet steadily passed up the river, destroying thirteen of the enemy's vessels and iron-clads, and overcoming all the obstacles in the channel. At noon on the following day they anchored in front of the city of New Orleans, and received the capitulation of the city. Four days later all the forts of the river were surrendered, and garrisoned by the troops of General Butler. The general fixed his headquarters at New Orleans. Thus, before the invincible Farragut, fell the great stronghold of the rebellion, and a permanent lodgment was made at a point which the rebels might have held without advantage, but the loss of which was an irreparable blow at their very vitals.

At the break of day on the morning of the 10th of April, eleven batteries which had been erected on Tybee Island, under direction of General Gilmore, opened fire on Fort Pulaski, a powerful fortress which commanded the entrance of Savannah River. By two o'clock in the afternoon, the fort was literally knocked in pieces, and was surrendered.

On the 27th of the same month, Fort Macon, near Beaufort, North Carolina, surrendered to General Burnside, after a terrific bombardment of twenty-four hours.

Turning now to the advance upon Richmond, we find General McClellan on the 7th of April, seated before the strongly fortified position of Yorktown, with an army of 85,000 men. He besieged the place till the 4th of May, when, as he was about to carry the enemy's works by assault, they abandoned them, leaving seventy heavy guns and a large amount of stores and ammunition, as a prize to the cap-

tors. The enemy fell back to Williamsburgh, but were suddenly attacked there on the 6th, and after a severe fight, were driven in confusion towards Richmond.

The evacuation of these two places was immediately followed by the capture, without resistance, of the important city of Norfolk, by a force sent out from Fortress Monroe by General Wool. Before leaving the city, however, the rebels destroyed the fine navy yard, and rendered all the public works about the city useless.

In the meantime events of great importance were progressing in the Shenandoah Valley. On the 23d of March, General Shields, commanding under General Banks, attacked the rebel general, Thomas J. Jackson (afterwards famous as Stonewall Jackson), at Winchester, and defeated him. Jackson retreated to Harrisonburg. On the 8th of May he again encountered the Union generals, Milroy and Schenck, at Bull Pasture Mountain, when an indecisive action was had. Jackson then marched to New Market, where he was joined by Ewell's division, when he turned upon a small Union force at Front Royal, under Colonel Kenbey, which he cut to pieces. He then swiftly marched upon Strasburg, where General Banks was encamped, attacked him on the 23d of May, defeated him, and by forced marches drove him back to the north bank of the Potomac, with a heavy loss of men and baggage. Reaching the Potomac, General Jackson showed no disposition to go further, but at once commenced to fall back. At Cross Keys he was overtaken by General Fremont on the 8th of June, and after a severe fight was compelled still further to fall back to Port Republic, where he met and engaged a force under General Shields, and compelled them to retire. General Jackson then retired upon Charlottesville, and was next heard of in the great struggle before Richmond.

On the 9th of May General Hunter, commanding the States of Georgia, Florida, and South Carolina, issued a proclamation placing those States under martial law, and declared that "slavery and martial law in a free country being altogether incompatible, the persons in these three States heretofore held as slaves are therefore declared free." The President immediately revoked this proclamation as unauthorized and therefore void.

The great point of interest now was the siege of Richmond, which General McClellan had entered upon in earnest, by the route of the great peninsula formed by the York and James Rivers. On the 20th of May his advanced troops had reached the Chickahominy River, at

Bottom's Bridge, only twelve miles in a direct line from Richmond, and on the same day General Casey crossed the river and occupied the opposite heights. The general depot for supplies and ammunition was fixed at the White House, on the Pamunkey River, some ten miles from Bottom's Bridge, a place notable as the family seat of the wife of Washington.

Learning that a strong rebel force had advanced to Hanover Court House, which was to the right and rear of his position, General McClellan sent General Fitz John Porter to dislodge or defeat them. This he accomplished on the 27th of May, after an action which was hotly contested during nearly a whole day. He destroyed the enemy's camp and took a large number of prisoners.

Our army was now massed on both sides of the Chickahominy, a river which is at this place a narrow and shallow stream in dry weather, but in a rainy season, a broad and almost impassable flood. At this time the rains were incessant, which not only raised the river to a flood, but rendered the roads of the Peninsula so bad that horses sank to their knees, and wagons to their wheel hubs.

On the south side of the river, General Casey's and General Couch's divisions were at Seven Pines and Fair Oaks, under General Keyes; while under General Heintzelman were Generals Hooker and Kearney, at Savage's Station and White Oak Swamp. Every position was well fortified. During the day and night of May 30, a rain storm of unusual severity prevailed. The rebels seized this opportunity to make an attack upon our forces on the south side of the river. Accordingly, on the morning of the 31st, an immense rebel force, under Generals Longstreet, Hill, Huger, and Smith, was seen advancing from Richmond to the attack. At eight o'clock all but Huger were ready for the fight. Fortunately he was detained by the mud. Wearied with waiting for him, at one o'clock, Hill and Longstreet fell in great fury upon Casey's division, and overwhelmed it. They retreated slowly to the river, and took no further part in the action. The enemy took possession of Casey's camp, and then turned upon Couch's division. This division stood firm for a time, but although the best portions of Heintzelman's and Kearney's forces came upon the field, with the gallant Kearney at their head, they were all overpowered, and the enemy were securing a position in their rear. Had they succeeded in this, the loss of our entire army would have been inevitable. But at this time (6 o'clock P. M.) General Sumner, with General Sedgwick's division, had succeeded in throwing a bridge across the river, and sud-

denly appeared upon the enemy's flank and opened a heavy battery upon his wearied troops. Luckily, at this exact moment, the rebel commander-in-chief, General J. E. Johnston, who had appeared upon the field about an hour before to rally and direct his army, was struck from his horse by a shell and severely wounded. In the confusion in the rebel ranks that followed these events night came on, and the fighting ceased. The following morning the rebels renewed the fight at an early hour, but the fresh men of Howard and Richardson who had been brought up, turned back the tide of battle, and charging upon the yielding rebel lines with fixed bayonets, they repulsed them at all points, and drove them back to within five miles of the city of Richmond. This was the great battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines, as it is sometimes called. In this fight the Union loss was 5,737, and the rebel loss 6,783.

At this time General McClellan's line covered a distance of about fifteen miles in length, from White Oak Swamp on the south to Mechanicsville on the north. His base of supplies was at the White House on the Pamunkey River. That this line was too long for the number of men he had to hold it, became evident to him on the 13th of June, when the rebel General Stuart, with 1,500 cavalry, made a sudden dash upon the force at Hanover Court House, overpowered it, and before night had swept completely around the Union army, destroying a large amount of stores, and carrying into the rebel lines, not only a large number of prisoners, but a full sketch of McClellan's position. General McClellan at once determined to change his base of supplies to the James River, and gradually draw back to a position on that river near Harrison's Landing. The enemy in front had been reinforced till they numbered over 100,000 men. They were concentrated and prepared to attack any portion of our extended line that promised the greatest advantage to them. McClellan asked the President for reinforcements. But the President deemed it necessary to guard Washington by all the available troops in that quarter. McClellan therefore resolved to advance upon Richmond with the men he had, at the same time protesting, in an earnest despatch to the Secretary of War, on the 28th, "If I save this army now, I tell you plainly that I owe no thanks to you, or to any other persons in Washington. You have done your best to sacrifice this army." He fixed upon Thursday, the 26th of June, for a final attack, but the enemy anticipated him by making, on that day, a desperate attack on his extreme right at Mechanicsville. They were repulsed by

General Reynolds. Again they advanced, and were again repulsed by General Seymour.

The next day, the 27th, they again advanced to the charge in larger numbers, and at Gaines' Mill gained a decisive victory, driving back the Union forces across the river, and laying open to capture the depot of supplies at the White House. All the immense amount of stores at this place that could be, were removed at once, and all that could not be carried away were destroyed.

General McClellan's flank movement to the James River was now imperative. He saw that he was overwhelmed by a vastly superior force, and all his thoughts were turned to the salvation of his men.

Saturday, the 28th, Sunday, the 29th, and Monday, the 30th of June, were marked by the most stubborn resistance of the Union troops, as the clouds of rebel troops fell upon them, and gradually pushed them back towards the James River. At Savage's Station and at Nelson's Farm, battles were fought which, had they been isolated, would have formed great events in the history of the war, but mingled as they were with the terrific fighting of the memorable Seven Days, they were mere incidents.

On Tuesday, July 1st, the army had reached and were encamped on Malvern Hill, an elevated plateau, in full sight of the James River and of the gunboats and transports which were moored at Harrison's Landing. Here they were ranged in compact order of battle. The left wing rested near the river, and was protected by the gunboats. No sooner was the order of battle formed, than the rebels made an attack upon the right. They were repulsed with great slaughter. After two hours of rest they renewed the attack on the left, and here, until night closed the scene, they threw themselves with the most determined bravery upon our lines, regardless of the tempest of grape, canister, and shell, that poured upon them from our massed artillery, and the great projectiles that were hurled upon them from our gunboats in the river. Darkness closed the scene. The battle of Malvern Hill was over, and with it closed the Seven Days' fighting. The next morning our army retired without molestation upon the banks of the river, under cover of the gunboats, and were refreshed by the ample supplies of the transports. Fifteen thousand of their comrades had been left behind, either killed, wounded, or missing. For seven days and nights, with no rest and little food, they had performed prodigies of valor, and were now permitted a short season of rest.

It was the design of General McClellan to reinforce the army, and

prepare for another advance upon the rebel capital. But this was not deemed advisable by the War Department, and preparations were made to withdraw the army from the James River.

In the meantime a heavy rebel force, under General Robert E. Lee, who was now in supreme command of the rebel army of Virginia, pushed northward from Richmond, with the design of advancing upon Washington. General Pope, in command of the defences of Washington, sent a force to intercept him. General Banks met the advance of the rebel army, under Stonewall Jackson, at Cedar Mountain, near the Rappidan River, on the 9th of August, and was forced back after a sharp engagement. A series of raids upon the Union supply stations and trains followed this affair, until the 26th of August, at which time the entire rebel army was upon the Rappahannock, and confronting General Pope. On the 27th, General Hooker attacked a portion of them at Kettle Run, but without any decisive result. On the 28th McDowell and Sigel attacked the enemy at Centreville, and after an action which was only terminated by darkness, the enemy retired to their old defences at Bull Run. Here, on the 29th, General Pope attacked them with his whole force, and, as he supposed, after a terrible conflict, drove them from their entrenchments. But they only fell back to meet their reinforcements. The next day they advanced and drove Pope back to Centreville, where he remained unmolested till the 2d of September, when a heavy rebel force under Jackson attacked our supply trains at Chantilly, near Fairfax Court House, capturing a large number of wagons. In driving back this force, the Union cause suffered a severe loss in the death of Generals Stevens and Kearney, who were both killed upon the field. On the following day General Pope withdrew his whole army, in great confusion, to Arlington Heights, in front of Washington. His campaign had also been a failure.

The army of the Potomac had now arrived at Washington, and the defence of the capital was placed in the hands of General McClellan. The President on the 4th of August had called for 300,000 men for nine months, and on the 15th, for 300,000 men for three years.

The enemy, flushed with a series of successes, now rapidly marched up the south bank of the Potomac, forded the river near Point of Rocks, and on the 6th of September encamped in Frederick, Maryland. From this place General Lee issued a proclamation to the people of Maryland, calling upon them to join his standard and he would protect them from the wrongs and outrages of the Washington

government. But his address was unheeded. He then drew up his force along the crest of South Mountain, and awaited the approach of General McClellan. At the same time he despatched General Jackson to Harper's Ferry, who captured that place, with 11,000 prisoners, on the 15th, but not until the commander, Colonel Miles, had been killed.

General McClellan had now for his corps and division commanders, Burnside, Sumner, Franklin, Reno, Hooker, Williams, Mansfield, and Sykes. Lee had Stonewall Jackson, Longstreet, McLaws, Walker, Hill, and Stuart. On the 14th, the battle of South Mountain was fought, being opened by our right wing, under Hooker. It was a steady hand to hand fight, which lasted through the day, and resulted in the discomfiture of Lee, who was obliged to fall back towards the Potomac, in the direction of Williamsport. In this battle the brave General Reno was killed. The same day General Franklin attacked the reserves of Lee's army at Crampton's Pass, and drove them in upon the main army.

Jackson, having left a guard at Harper's Ferry, proceeded to join the main army, which was now posted behind the Antietam Creek, near Sharpsburg. Here, at daylight on the morning of the 17th, commenced "the greatest battle since Waterloo." Two hundred thousand men, an equal number on each side, were here engaged, with five hundred pieces of artillery, from the opening of the fight till they were separated by the darkness of night; and nearly thirty thousand were dead or wounded on the field. The tide of battle swayed with varying results during the day, nearly all the ground upon which it was fought being taken and retaken in turn. Generals Mansfield, Richardson, and Rodman were killed, and Hooker, Sedgwick, Meagher, Hartsuff, and Dana were wounded and carried from the field. Both armies slept upon the field, expecting to renew the fight on the morning of the 18th. But the enemy retired from his position, and crossed the Potomac into Virginia. General McClellan did not follow them up, and they departed unmolested, abandoning every place they had occupied north of the Potomac, Harper's Ferry included.

On the 22d day of September, President Lincoln issued his famous proclamation to the people of the South, calling upon them to return to their allegiance to the government, and warning them if they did not, that he would, on the 1st day of January, 1863, declare that all slaves within any State, or any designated part of a State, the people

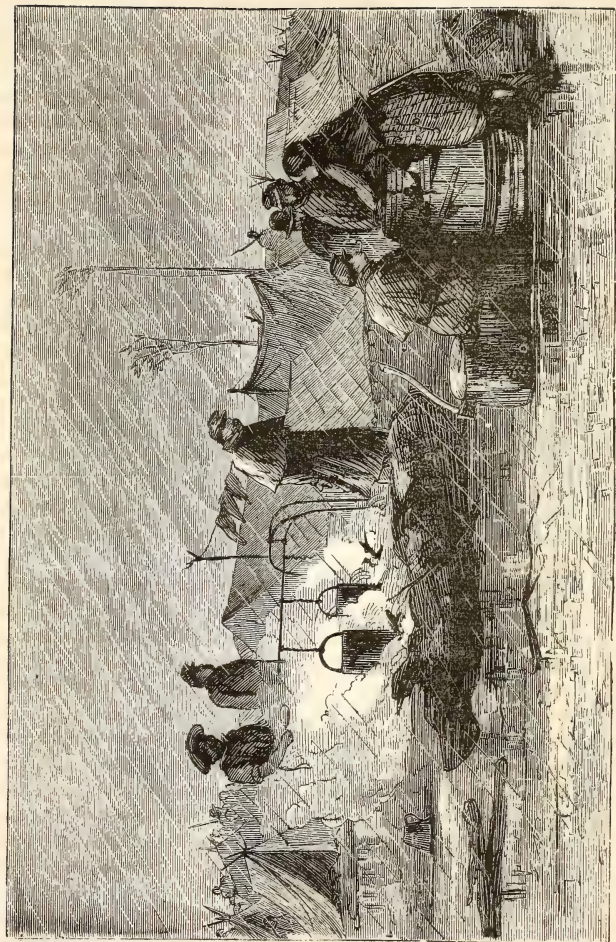
whereof should then be in rebellion against the United States, should be thenceforth and forever free.

General J. E. B. Stuart, with a force of 2,000 rebel cavalry, made a most daring raid into Pennsylvania, on the 10th and 11th of October. He reached Chambersburg, burnt all the government property, supplied himself with fresh horses, and after capturing a large amount of stores and supplies, passed rapidly around our army in Maryland, and crossed the Potomac into Virginia.

The month of October was consumed in preparing for a forward movement, and on the 2d of November, the army was all across the Potomac, and on the 7th had reached Warrenton, and was in admirable condition and spirits, and expecting to attack Longstreet's division of the rebel army, which was near by. On the evening of that day McClellan received an order to turn over his command to General Burnside, and report from Trenton, New Jersey. This closed the military career of General McClellan, for he was never again called to command. His career has been severely condemned by some, but among his friends he can count some of the best military minds of the age. All admit that he had a thorough scientific knowledge of his profession, and no man ever charged him with a lack of devotion to the cause of the government.

Meanwhile affairs were not wholly satisfactory in the Mississippi Valley. General Curtis, who took command of the army of Missouri after the battle of Pea Ridge, had penetrated into Arkansas, but was obliged to retreat. Lexington and Frankfort, Kentucky, had been occupied by a rebel force under Kirby Smith, and, in short, that State seemed to be overrun by the enemy. To offset these disasters, on the 19th and 20th of September, General Rosecrans gained a decided victory, at Iuka, Mississippi, over the rebels under command of General Price. Price retreated, formed a junction with Van Dorn and Lovell, and attacked our camp at Corinth, under General Rosecrans, but after a three days' fight, was repulsed with great loss. This was on the 3d, 4th, and 5th of October. This virtually restored the Union authority in all parts of Western Tennessee.

General Rosecrans now proceeded to Nashville. From this place he marched, on the 26th of December, to attack the enemy at Murfreesboro', about thirty miles distant, where they were encamped in great force, under General Bragg. He reached the vicinity of Murfreesboro' on the 30th, and on the morning of the 31st, when three miles distant, was suddenly attacked by the enemy, and the right wing



CAMP LIFE.

of his army, under General McCook, was repulsed in great confusion. From this time to the 4th of January, the most stubborn fighting was maintained by both sides, when Bragg finally was forced to yield. He evacuated Murfreesboro' and fled in much confusion. The Union losses in this battle were about 7,000 in killed and wounded.

At Fayetteville, Arkansas, on the 7th of December, a severe battle was fought by the Union army under Generals Herron and Blunt, and a superior rebel force, which resulted in a complete victory to the Union arms.

When the army of the Potomac was turned over to General Burnside, immediate preparations were made to advance upon Richmond by way of the Rappahannock. On the 11th of December the army was massed on that river opposite Fredericksburg, and the bombardment of that place was opened. Pontoon bridges were laid and the army crossed on the morning of the 12th, without serious opposition, and took possession of the city. The enemy fell back to a strongly entrenched position in the rear. Here they were attacked on the morning of the 13th, by General Franklin on the right and General Couch in the centre; but after an all-day's fight of the most desperate character, it was found that no impression could be made on the enemy's works, and the contest was abandoned. On the 15th General Burnside recrossed the river and encamped.

At the same time that these events were occurring in Virginia, General Foster advanced from Newbern, North Carolina, and attacked the enemy at Kinston. He repulsed them after a severe fight on the 13th, took possession of the town, advanced upon Goldsborough, and after destroying the railroad at that place, returned to Newbern, having accomplished all that he desired.

The time was now approaching when the President had notified the South that he should resort to the extreme measure of a general liberation of their slaves, unless they should return to their allegiance to the government. The rebellion was more virulent than ever. The rebel President, anticipating the action of President Lincoln, had issued an order declaring that all negro slaves caught in arms should not be treated as prisoners of war, but as felons, and be dealt with accordingly; and all white officers caught in command of slaves should be treated in the same manner.

Acting upon his promise, and as a necessity of the military situation, the President opened the new year, 1863, with the publication of his immortal proclamation, by which the chains of 3,120,000 bondmen

were stricken off and they were declared free men. The proclamation is here given :

“Whereas, on the twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, to wit :

““That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforth, and forever free, and the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

““That the executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof respectively shall then be in rebellion against the United States, and the fact that any State, or the people thereof shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State and the people thereof are not then in rebellion against the United States.’

“Now, therefore, I, ABRAHAM LINCOLN, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaim for the full period of one hundred days from the day of the first above-mentioned order, and designate, as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit : Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana (except the parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, La Fourche, St. Mary, St. Martin, and Orleans, in-

cluding the city of New Orleans), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also in the counties of Berkeley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Ann, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth), and which excepted parts are for the present left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

“And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States and parts of States are, and henceforward shall be free! and that the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

“And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free, to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence, and I recommend to them that in all cases, when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

“And I further declare and make known that such persons of suitable condition will be received into the armed service of the United States, to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

“And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

“In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my name, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

“Done at the city of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-[L.S.] three, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.

“A. LINCOLN.

“By the President,

“WM. H. SEWARD,

“Secretary of State.”

The number of slaves excepted in this proclamation amounted to 830,000. This document was received with great favor in the loyal States, and at once enlisted a powerful support in Europe for the Union cause, which had previously been withheld.

The Mississippi River was still closed. This great outlet for the surplus products of the West had been cleared of obstructions at its mouth, and at Memphis, and above, but at Vicksburg, about 400 miles above New Orleans, the rebels had exhausted the engineer's art in constructing fortifications which were deemed impregnable, and which effectually guarded the channel of the river. At Port Hudson, about midway between Vicksburg and New Orleans, powerful fortifications had also been constructed to impede the navigation of the river. Fortifications were also erected at Grand Gulf and several other less important places. Immediately after the capture of New Orleans, in June, 1862, Commodore Farragut proceeded up the river with his victorious fleet, passed Port Hudson with little difficulty, and ineffectually bombarded Vicksburg for several days. Afterwards an attempt was made by General Williams to cut a passage across a bend in the river in front of the city, so as to form a new channel through which the navigation of the river might be opened without passing near the city. This also failed. The capture of this stronghold now devolved upon General Grant. Early in December, 1862, General Grant ordered General Sherman to proceed down the river from Memphis, and on the 26th of that month to attack Vicksburg, while he (General Grant) would move upon the city from the direction of Jackson, and support the attack on that side. Grant had his depot of supplies at Holly Springs, under the charge of Colonel Murphy. The day General Sherman left Memphis (the 20th), and after he had proceeded too far to be notified of the disaster and recalled, this depot was attacked by a small rebel force under Van Dorn, to whom Colonel Murphy surrendered, and all the supplies were either carried away or destroyed. This prevented General Grant from moving his army until he could obtain new supplies from Memphis. In the meantime General Sherman reached Vicksburg on the 26th, and on that and the three following days charged upon the defences of the city at the Chickasaw Bluffs, with the most desperate valor; but not being supported by Grant, as he expected, he then retired, and returned to Memphis. The siege of Vicksburg was then suspended for several months, but not abandoned.

The early part of 1863 was marked by the most remarkable activity of the rebel privateers. The most noted of them, the Alabama and Florida, destroyed millions of our commerce, and successfully eluded pursuit. Their practice was to capture unarmed merchant vessels and destroy them, after rescuing their passengers and crews, whom they

would detain in irons until they could place them on other vessels and send them into port.

On the 24th of January General Burnside was relieved of the command of the army of the Potomac, and General Hooker appointed in his place. General Hooker at once commenced preparations to recross the Rappahannock at Fredericksburg, regain the ground lost by General Burnside, and push on to Richmond. It was not until the 27th of April that he commenced to move across the river. His plan was to make several feints at crossing below Fredericksburg, to deceive the enemy, while in fact the main body of the army should cross at Kelly's Ford, twenty-five miles above, and by a rapid march, gain the rear of the rebel army, and secure a position between them and Richmond. At the same time a heavy body of cavalry, under General Stoneman, were ordered to cross below and cut the railroad leading from Fredericksburg to the rebel capital. This plan, so well conceived, was promptly carried out. Stoneman and Kilpatrick performed prodigies of labor, passing nine days within the enemy's lines, running up to within two miles of Richmond, and destroying an incalculable amount of property.

In the meantime the entire army of the Potomac, about 80,000 strong, had concentrated in the rear of the rebel army at Fredericksburg, at a place called Chancellorsville. Here, on the 30th of April, General Hooker issued the following jubilant order :

"It is with heartfelt satisfaction that the general commanding announces to the army that the operations of the last three days have determined that our enemy must ingloriously fly, or come out from behind their defences, and give us battle on our own ground, where certain destruction awaits him."

Events did not justify this sanguine view of the case. On the evening of Saturday, the 2d of May, the rebel division under Stonewall Jackson attacked Hooker's right wing, or the Eleventh Corps, under General Howard, which was posted in the Wilderness, and drove it back in confusion upon the centre at Chancellorsville. It was a dear victory, however, for the rebels, for during the fight Jackson fell mortally wounded. He was their ablest and most trusted general, and carried even into a bad cause that high-toned and chivalric disposition that enforces the respect of mankind.

Early on the following morning (strange it is that so many of the great battles of the world should have been fought on Sunday!) the rebel generals Hill and Trimble advanced upon General Hooker's

centre, and after six hours of desperate fighting, gained the plank road leading from Chancellorsville to Fredericksburg, and pressed Hooker still farther back. The same morning General Sedgwick, who had been left on the opposite side of the river, at Falmouth, with 20,000 men, crossed over and attacked the enemy in their entrenchments on Fredericksburg heights, and gallantly drove them out of their works.

On Monday morning the entire rebel army was thus massed between Sedgwick and Hooker, when they suddenly turned upon Sedgwick and routed him, driving him over the ground which he had taken the day before, and compelling him to recross the river during the night. Hooker being now exposed to an attack from the entire rebel army, and a heavy rain storm setting in which threatened to make the river impassable, at once gave orders on Tuesday morning to recross the river. This was done in good order during the day. The losses in this disastrous affair amounted to about 18,000 on each side.

In Charleston Harbor on the 7th of April, a powerful demonstration was made upon Fort Sumter by a fleet of nine iron-clads, under Admiral Dupont. It was wholly unsuccessful, and resulted in the loss of the Monitor Keokuk and the serious injury of several others.

The attention of the country was now turned to the Mississippi, where General Grant, with characteristic tenacity was enveloping the strongholds of the enemy with his immense army, drying up their sources of supplies, and gradually tightening the cords which were finally to bind them and lay them helpless at his feet.

General Banks proceeded up the west bank of the river, through the Bayou Teche region, and took possession of that part of the State from which the garrison at Port Hudson drew their supplies. He also destroyed a number of rebel transports and gunboats which had been run up the bayous for safety.

On the 17th of April, General Grierson, with only 542 splendidly mounted cavalry men, started from Lagrange, Tennessee, and made a dash through the interior of Mississippi, reaching Baton Rouge on the 2d of May. He destroyed an immense amount of property, as well as growing crops, depots of supplies, etc.

General Grant marched upon Port Gibson, below Vicksburg, and captured that place after a severe action, on the 1st of May. This victory rendered Grand Gulf untenable, and that stronghold which had, three days before, successfully resisted an attack from the mortar fleet of Admiral Porter, was abandoned. Turning to the north, General

Grant encountered the army of General Joseph E. Johnston, on the 14th of May, at Raymond, near Jackson, defeated him and entered Jackson, the capital of the State. He then turned directly upon the rear of Vicksburg, where he was met on the 16th by General Pemberton, the commander at Vicksburg, who had marched out of his defences for the purpose of checking him. Pemberton was defeated and driven back to Vicksburg. When Grant was within ten miles of the city, he was again attacked by Pemberton, who was again defeated. Grant now closely invested the city, and commenced to rain upon it a constant shower of shot and shell, both from the land side and from the fleet. On the north, south, and west, all communication with the city had been cut off, and the surrender of the place was only a question of time. General Johnston was too badly cut up by the battle of the 14th to attempt to raise the siege by attacking Grant in the rear, or to impede him in running his parallels nearer and nearer the city. The inhabitants protected themselves from the iron shower that poured upon their devoted city, by building caves in the ground, where thousands of them passed many weary days and nights. Finally, on the 3d of July, as General Grant was prepared for an assault upon the city, General Pemberton sent out to him a flag of truce and desired an interview. Beneath the shadow of a tree which has become historic, the two generals met, and after a courteous greeting, General Pemberton said—

“General Grant, I meet you in order to arrange terms for the capitulation of the city of Vicksburg, and its garrison. What terms do you demand?”

“*Unconditional surrender*,” replied Grant.

“Unconditional surrender! Never,” said Pemberton, “so long as I have a man left me. I will fight rather.”

“Then, sir,” said Grant, “you can continue the defence. My army has never been in a better condition to prosecute the siege.”

After further conversation, General Grant explained the terms on which he would accept the surrender, which were liberal, and an armistice was agreed upon till the next morning. When the morning came—the anniversary of the Declaration of Independence—General Pemberton surrendered the city, and turned over his half-starved garrison of about 30,000 men as prisoners of war. Grant’s losses during the campaign were about 8,500, in killed and wounded.

In the meantime, General Banks had closely invested Port Hudson, and on the 27th of May made a desperate but unsuccessful assault

upon that place. Again on the 14th of June the assault was repeated, with a like result. When Vicksburg fell, Port Hudson at once was given up (July 8th), with its garrison of 7,000 men.

The Mississippi River was now open from its mouth to its source, and by the retreat of General Bragg from Tullahoma, under the menace of General Rosecrans, the whole of Tennessee was cleared of rebel troops.

The arrest of Clement L. Vallandigham, an ex-member of Congress, and a prominent politician, caused great excitement. The arrest was made in the night of the 5th of May, at his house in Dayton, Ohio, by a company of soldiers sent up from Cincinnati by General Burnside. He was taken to Cincinnati, tried by a military commission, and found guilty of uttering seditious language, and sentenced to be confined in some fortress of the United States during the continuance of the war. General Burnside approved the sentence, and ordered him to be sent to Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor. The President, however, changed the sentence, by ordering him sent to the Confederate States, to remain during the war, under penalty of imprisonment. This sentence was carried out, but Mr. Vallandigham passed through the South, sailed in a blockade runner to Bermuda, and from thence to Halifax, from which place he proceeded to Windsor, Canada, opposite Detroit, where his family soon joined him, and where he remained for about a year, when he returned unmolested to his home. The particular language charged upon Mr. Vallandigham was this, used in a public speech at Mount Vernon, Ohio: "The war is a wicked, cruel, and unnecessary war; a war not being waged for the preservation of the Union; a war for the purpose of crushing out liberty and erecting a despotism; a war for the freedom of the blacks and the enslavement of the whites;" characterizing an order of General Burnside, prohibiting such language, as "a base usurpation of arbitrary authority," and saying to his hearers that "the sooner the people inform the minions of usurped power that they will not submit to such restrictions upon their liberties, the better."

Public meetings were held in various parts of the country, to protest against the abridgment of the freedom of speech in this case, and Mr. Vallandigham was nominated by his friends as governor of Ohio; but he was defeated by an immense majority, and a large proportion of the people acquiesced in the treatment extended to him.

Immediately after the battle near Fredericksburg, in May, General Lee gathered up the entire strength of the eastern department of the

rebel army for a grand invasion of the North. On the 9th of June, he broke up his camp at Fredericksburg, and moved northward. He sent General Ewell, with 15,000 men, to clear the Shenandoah Valley of Union troops. Our advanced position in that valley was at Winchester, where General Milroy was stationed with 7,000 men. Ewell attacked him on the 13th, and after a great battle, drove him in full retreat for Harper's Ferry, capturing a large portion of his command.

On the 14th, the advanced guard of Lee's army crossed the Potomac and advanced upon Hagerstown.

Meanwhile General Hooker proceeded northward, keeping between Lee's army and Washington. On the 27th Hooker was ordered to turn over his command to General George G. Meade, of Pennsylvania. At this time the entire rebel army had crossed the Potomac, and had extended themselves through the border counties of Maryland and Pennsylvania. The President, in alarm, on the 15th, had called for 100,000 men from Pennsylvania, New York, Ohio, West Virginia, and Maryland, all of whom were promptly furnished.

The rebels advanced to Chambersburg, Shippensburg, and Carlisle, while their cavalry was engaged in Maryland, in cutting railroads and capturing trains and supplies intended for the army of General Meade. At Hanover, Pennsylvania, on the 30th, Stuart's rebel cavalry attacked a portion of Meade's army, and were repulsed. Carlisle was attacked and occupied. Both armies now turned towards Gettysburgh, a small town 114 miles west of Philadelphia, and 75 north of Washington. Here, on the 1st, 2d, and 3d of July, was fought a great battle between the entire army of General Lee and the army of the Potomac. On the 1st, the advance of both armies met, and after a severe struggle, the advantage was with the rebels at night. Among the killed on the Union side was General Reynolds. Both armies were now concentrated, and skirmishing was kept up on the 2d till four o'clock in the afternoon, when the enemy commenced an attack in earnest upon General Meade's centre on Cemetery Hill, at the same time that the rebel generals, Longstreet and Hill, made a determined attack upon our left. Our troops at this point gave way, when the timely arrival of General Sedgwick checked the rebel advance and drove them back. At this juncture the enemy charged with great fury upon our right, and were not repulsed until nearly ten at night, when the action ceased.

On the morning of the 3d, heavy cannonading was opened and kept up till four in the afternoon. From this hour forth till half-past eight

o'clock, occurred by all odds the most sanguinary engagement yet chronicled in the annals of the war. The artillery attack made by the enemy on the left and centre was rapidly followed by the advance of his infantry. The Third corps received the attack with great coolness. The rebels made at once for our flank, and kept moving heavy columns in that direction. This necessitated support, which was quickly given by the Fifth corps. The division of General Barnes being sent to the right, and that of General Ayres (regulars) to the left, with General Crawford in the reserve.

The battle now became perfectly fearful. The armies engaged each other at very short range, and for three long hours the war of musketry was incessant. Such desperate, tenacious fighting as took place on this flank has seldom been known in any battle. The enemy would often bring up suddenly a heavy column of men, and force our line back, only to be in turn forced back by our line of glittering steel. Our gallant columns covered themselves with glory over and over again. They fought a superior force in numbers. The dispositions of the enemy were very rapid, for, look where you would on that field, a body of the rebels would be advancing. Our dispositions were equally rapid, and the enemy found more than a match in such gallant veterans as Sickles, Birney, and Humphreys. At half-past six General Sickles was struck in the right leg by a piece of shell, and borne from the field. The injury was so great that amputation became necessary, and it was performed successfully, the limb being taken off below the knee.

The struggle grew hotter and hotter. The Second corps was called on for aid, and though its own position was strongly threatened, yet the 1st division, formerly General Hancock's, flung themselves into the fight with desperation, and after a long and obstinate conflict, the enemy slowly and sullenly gave way. In this last charge the brigade of General Caldwell, Second corps, and that of Colonel Switzer, from the Fifth corps, won great honors. The rebels made frequent attempts to capture our artillery, and at one time had Watson's battery in their possession, but it was retaken in a furious charge by Birney's division.

The battle lasted till half-past eight o'clock, when the enemy fell back to his old position, and left our veterans the ensanguined victors of the field.

* General Lee slowly retired upon the Potomac, which had been so swollen by rains that it could not be forded. He remained here till

the 14th, in a position which General Meade could not have safely attacked, when he retired at his leisure. He entered Maryland with 90,000 men. He returned with 60,000. The Union loss in the battles with him was about 18,000 in killed and wounded.

A portion of this battle ground was dedicated, with great formality, as a National Cemetery, on the 19th of the following November. Large lots were laid out for the dead of the different States who fell in battle there, and elaborate designs were formed for suitable monuments. Edward Everett delivered the oration on the occasion, and President Lincoln gave the occasion the honor of his presence. Being called upon, he delivered the following felicitous address:

"Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We are met to dedicate a portion of it as the final resting place of those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

"But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work that they have thus far so nobly carried on. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to the cause for which they here gave the last full measure of devotion—that we here highly resolve that the dead shall not have died in vain—that the nation shall, under God, have a new birth of freedom, and that the government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

On the 10th of July, a severe cavalry engagement took place at Hanover, Virginia, between the rebel General Stuart and the Union cavalry under General Buford. Stuart was defeated, and left 1,000 prisoners in General Buford's hands.

In commemoration of victories so signal and effective, President Lincoln ordered a day of national thanksgiving, praise, and prayer to be observed on the 6th of August. On the other hand, Jefferson Davis ordered a day of fasting and prayer on the 21st of August, on

account of reverses, which in three weeks had swept away nearly one-third of his effective force.

Early in July, the rebel General Morgan made a sudden dash across the Ohio River, into Indiana, with 5,000 cavalry, and passed through that State into Ohio. He was pursued, and himself and nearly all his command were captured, after they had committed serious depredations upon public and private property.

Preparations having been completed, a vigorous attack was made upon Fort Wagner, on Morris Island, in Charleston Harbor, on the 10th of July. The land forces were under General Gillmore, and the naval under Admiral Dahlgren. After eight days of incessant bombardment, an assault was ordered on the 18th. This failed, with the loss of 1,000 men. From this time to the 7th of September, siege operations upon Forts Wagner and Gregg were continued, when our sappers had advanced up to the very moat of Wagner. The forts were then both evacuated, and General Gillmore took possession.

On the 13th of July a fearful riot broke out in the city of New York. The mob originated ostensibly in a determination to put a stop to the draft for troops which the government had ordered in that city. But its main fury was spent upon the inoffensive negroes residing in the city. Many of these were savagely murdered in the streets, their houses burned, and finally a colored orphan asylum, where some hundreds of children were kept, was sacked and burned. The riot spent its force in three or four days, and was quelled. A number of the ringleaders were arrested and summarily punished.

Taking advantage of our internal dissensions, the governments of England, France, and Spain had invaded Mexico, under the pretext of securing indemnity for the indebtedness of that government to their subjects, and to secure the fulfilment of treaty stipulations which they had together. The head of the alliance was France. The Mexicans were repulsed wherever they made resistance, and after their capital was taken they submitted to the establishment of an Empire, and to have the farce of an election for Emperor. They elected the Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor of Austria, who was duly proclaimed Emperor Maximilian I. This puppet of the French Emperor assumed the Mexican crown, and has since maintained his authority by means of French bayonets.

The cabinets of Europe, however, had sense enough not to recognize the independence of the Southern Confederacy—an act which was

persistently urged upon them by rebel envoys, and by not a few of the statesmen of Europe.

After the capture of Vicksburg, immediate steps were taken to expel the rebels from Eastern and Middle Tennessee and Northern Georgia. On the 21st of August, General Rosecrans, having advanced upon Chattanooga, opened fire upon that place. This was kept up for nearly three weeks, as a mere feint, during which time his main force was making a wide detour to the rear of Chattanooga. General Bragg did not suspect this scheme, until on the 7th of September he discovered that the Union army had flanked him. He at once abandoned the place, and fell back upon Lafayette, some twenty-five miles south. On the 9th, General Rosecrans took quiet possession of Chattanooga, and then set out in pursuit of Bragg. Reaching the Chicamauga, a small stream which runs north and enters the Tennessee, he encamped, about ten miles from Chattanooga. Here, on the 19th of September, he was turned upon by Bragg, and attacked with great fury. The fight was opened by the rebel General Longstreet, who attacked General Thomas who commanded the left wing. Bragg was repulsed. A simultaneous attack upon our right and centre was successful, Crittenden and McCook commanding them being forced back. The next day the rebels fell again upon Crittenden and McCook, and drove them in confusion upon Chattanooga. General Rosecrans was himself in this division of the army, and was driven away with them. Bragg then turned with his victorious army upon General Thomas. Abandoned by the general in command, flanked by an army that outnumbered him two to one, he still resolved to hold his ground. And he did hold it, against dreadful odds. Three times was the whole power of the rebel army thrown upon him, and three times were they repulsed. Night separated the combatants, and gave Thomas an opportunity to withdraw his army to Chattanooga. The loss on each side in this great battle was about 13,000.

In the meantime General Burnside had taken possession of Knoxville, from which place he proceeded to Cumberland Gap, where he attacked the rebel garrison and took 2,000 prisoners.

General Grant was put in supreme command of the Western Department on the 18th of October, and General Thomas, who so gallantly saved the army at Chicamauga, superseded General Rosecrans.

The condition of the army of the Cumberland, under Thomas, was precarious. The rebels held possession of Lookout Mountain and Mission Ridge, points which commanded the river and railroad com-

munication with Nashville and Louisville. The army at Chattanooga was not half supplied with rations and clothing, and so desperate did the situation seem to the rebel generals, that on the 21st of November, General Bragg sent this message to General Grant: "Humanity would dictate the removal of all non-combatants from Chattanooga, as I am about to shell the city." General Grant made no reply. At this time General Bragg had sent Longstreet, his ablest officer, with 20,000 men, to attack Burnside at Knoxville. Burnside had his instructions to fall back, and draw Longstreet as far away as possible. This he did. General Grant then sent a force to destroy the railroads and prevent Longstreet's return. This movement was made by General Sherman.

On the 23d General Grant ordered General Sherman to make a demonstration upon Missionary Ridge. The enemy, posted on an elevation of five hundred feet, watched the approach of Sherman, but did not believe he was serious in attempting to attack them. At three o'clock in the afternoon he had taken Orchard Knob, and held such a position that the next day he compelled the enemy to evacuate a portion of the mountain, where he intrenched himself. Hooker, on the same day, scaled the slopes of Lookout Mountain, drove out the enemy, captured 2,000 prisoners, and established himself in full view of Chattanooga. This battle is called "The Battle of the Clouds," for the day had been misty and rainy, and much of the battle was fought above the clouds which hid the combatants from the view of those below. A clear sky prevailed the following morning, and the Stars and Stripes were seen floating from the peak of the mountain. All that day the cannonade was continued from Orchard Knob against Missionary Ridge, right over the camp where Grant and Thomas stood, watching the result of the fight. At last Sherman made an assault on Bragg's right. The point was gained and held for a while, but the enemy rallied and drove him back. Again our whole line was pushed forward, and the heights were carried. Bragg was soon in full retreat. This was the only answer General Grant gave to his threat to shell the city of Chattanooga.

But Bragg was not suffered to get off easily. Generals Hooker, Sherman, and Palmer were ordered to pursue him, and, if possible, destroy him. They faithfully executed their orders. Bragg's broken and shattered columns found no rest till they were sheltered in Dalton. Sherman then turned northward, and drove Longstreet out of East Tennessee into Virginia. The campaigns of Vicksburg and Chatta-

nooga were thus closed. Up to this time Grant's particular commands had captured 90,000 prisoners, 472 cannons, and more than 100,000 small arms.

After all this General Grant thought himself justified in issuing the following congratulatory order to his army :

HEADQUARTERS, MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSISSIPPI,
IN THE FIELD, CHATTANOOGA, TENNESSEE,
December 10, 1863.

General Orders, No. 9.

The general commanding takes this opportunity of returning his sincere thanks and congratulations to the brave armies of the Cumberland, the Ohio, the Tennessee, and their comrades from the Potomac, for the recent splendid and decisive successes achieved over the enemy. In a short time you have recovered from him the control of the Tennessee River, from Bridgeport to Knoxville. You dislodged him from his great stronghold upon Lookout Mountain ; drove him from Chattanooga Valley ; wrested from his determined grasp the possession of Missionary Ridge ; repelled, with heavy loss to him, his repeated assaults upon Knoxville, forcing him to raise the siege there, driving him at all points, utterly routed and discomfited, beyond the limits of the State. By your noble heroism and determined courage, you have most effectually defeated the plans of the enemy for regaining possession of the States of Kentucky and Tennessee. You have secured positions from which no rebellious power can drive or dislodge you. For all this, the general commanding thanks you, collectively and individually. The loyal people of the United States thank and bless you. Their hopes and prayers for your success against this unholy rebellion are with you, daily. Their faith in you will not be in vain. Their hopes will not be blasted. Their prayers to Almighty God will be answered. You will yet go to other fields of strife ; and with the invincible bravery and unflinching loyalty to justice and right which have characterized you in the past, you will prove that no enemy can withstand you, and that no defences, however formidable, can check your onward march.

By order of Maj.-Gen. U. S. GRANT.

While these events were occurring in the West, the armies in Virginia were not idle. In October, General Lee made a sudden move-

ment northward, and interposed General Ewell's division between General Meade and the city of Washington. Both armies were soon brought face to face upon the twice-fought field of Bull Run, and a general engagement was expected. But with the exception of a sharp encounter near Centreville, between the rebel General Hill and General Warren's corps, no action took place. The rebels contented themselves with destroying the railroads and bridges which would have aided General Meade in an advance upon Richmond, and both armies were soon in their old position on each side of the Rapidan.

On the 7th of November General Meade again crossed the Rappahannock, near Fredericksburg, with two divisions under Sedgwick and French. Near Rappahannock Station Sedgwick surprised and captured about 2,000 of the enemy, and French, at the same time, at Kelly's Ford, captured a rebel detachment of 400 men. Skirmishing was kept up until the 2d of December, on which day the enemy were discovered in great force on Mine Run, and General Meade, thinking it imprudent to attack them, retraced his steps, and withdrew to his old station on the north bank of the Rapidan, where he went into winter quarters.

The military operations of the year closed with a most daring raid by General Averill. With four mounted regiments and a battery, he left New Creek, Virginia, on the 8th of December, and made a dash through Western Virginia at the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, which was the chief line of communication between the rebel armies in Virginia and Tennessee. On the 16th he struck the road at New Salem, and soon destroyed fifteen miles of the road, destroying the bridges, depots, culverts, and an immense amount of stores. He evaded the force that was sent after him, and retreated in good order, with the loss in killed, wounded, and missing, of 100 men.

The thirty-eighth Congress commenced its session on the 7th of December. Both branches were very strongly in favor of the war policy of the President, and ready to sustain him with all the resources of the country. In his message to Congress the President declared that he should sustain all the laws and proclamations respecting slavery which had been put forth for the purpose of aiding in the suppression of the rebellion. Appended to his message was a proclamation of amnesty to all who were in rebellion who would take the following oath :

"I do solemnly swear, in the presence of Almighty God, that I will henceforth faithfully support, protect, and defend the constitution of"

the United States, and the Union of the States thereunder; and that I will in like manner abide by and faithfully support all acts of Congress passed during the existing rebellion with reference to slaves, so long and so far as not repealed, modified, or held void by Congress, or by decision of the Supreme Court; and that I will in like manner abide by and faithfully support all proclamations of the President, made during the existing rebellion having reference to slaves, so long and so far as not modified or declared void by decision of the Supreme Court. So help me God."

Several classes of persons at the South were excepted from the benefit of this proclamation—those who had made themselves prominent in the civil or military departments of the confederacy.

A brief abstract of the reports from the heads of the departments will show the vast scale upon which the war was being conducted.

The Secretary of War, for obvious reasons, gave no information in regard to the number of men in the field, but in regard to the employment of free negroes, said: "Immediately after the issuing of the President's proclamation, diligent efforts were commenced, and have been continued until the present time, for raising colored troops. The adjutant-general was sent to the Mississippi to organize the slaves there. Fifty thousand colored troops are now organized, and the number will rapidly increase as our armies advance. The freed slaves make good soldiers, are easily disciplined, and are full of courage. The slave has proved his manhood and capacity, and makes a good infantry, artillery, or cavalry soldier, as has been evidenced on several occasions. The colored troops have been allowed no bounty, and under the construction given by the department, they can only by the existing law receive \$10 per month for their services, while white soldiers receive \$13, clothing, and daily rations."

The Secretary of the Navy reports that he has maintained an unexampled blockade of 3,549 miles of sea coast, including the guarding of 189 harbors, river openings, and inlets. In addition, there are over a hundred gunboats patrolling the Mississippi and its tributaries, which figure up 3,615 miles that need watching.

The increase of the naval force during the past year has again been very considerable. At the commencement of the administration it consisted of 76 vessels, and of these only 42 were in commission. In December, 1862, the number of vessels was 427; during the current year it was increased to 588.

The following is a general exhibit of the navy.

	No. of Vessels.	No. of Guns.	Tonnage.
Iron-clad steamers, coast service	46	150	62,518
Iron-clad steamers, inland service.....	29	152	20,784
Side-wheel steamers.....	203	1,240	126,517
Screw steamers.....	198	1,578	187,892
Sailing vessels.....	112	1,323	70,256
Total.....	588	4,443	497,667

The number of vessels captured by the squadrons and reported to the department on the 1st of November is 1,045, classified as follows: schooners, 547; steamers, 179; sloops, 131; brigs, 30; barks, 26; ships, 15; yachts and small boats, 117. This is exclusive of a large number destroyed on the Mississippi and other rivers, and on the coast.

The Secretary of the Treasury gives the following as the receipts and expenditures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1863.

From Customs	\$69,059,642 40
From Lands.....	167,617 17
From Miscellaneous....	3,046,615 35
From Direct Tax.....	1,485,103 61
From Internal Revenue.....	37,640,787 95
Balance from last year.....	13,043,546 81
Total receipts from all ordinary resources.....	\$124,443,313 29

The disbursements were as follows:

The Civil Service.....	\$23,253,922 08
Pensions and Indians.....	4,216,520 79
War Department.....	599,298,600 83
Navy Department.....	63,210,105 27
Interest on Debt.....	24,729,846 61
Total.....	\$714,709,995 58

On the 1st of February, 1864, as an indication of the vigor with which the approaching campaign was to be conducted, the President ordered a draft of 500,000 men, to serve for three years or during the war. The policy of employing negroes in the service was now fully approved, after a fair trial, and under the laws, white men liable to the draft could enlist as substitutes the liberated negroes of the South.

On the 5th of February, a detachment of three brigades, under General Seymour, left Port Royal for Jacksonville, Florida. On the 20th, after a successful march into the interior, and the destruction of a large amount of supplies and war material, the enemy were met in force at Olustee, when a severe engagement ensued, which ended in a complete rout of the Union forces, with the loss of about 1,000 men and a number of guns.

On the 28th of the same month, General Kilpatrick crossed the Rapidan with a heavy cavalry force, and passing to the rear of Lee's army unobserved, pushed directly for Richmond. He reached a point within three miles of that city, and destroyed a large number of mills, besides doing incalculable damage to railroads and canals. He returned by way of the Peninsula, and reached Williamsburg safely on the 3d of March. In this expedition, Colonel Dahlgren, a son of the naval hero of that name, was killed.

On the 12th of March, the President assigned to General U. S. Grant the command of the armies of the United States, and at the same time assigned to General Sherman the military department of the Mississippi, which Grant had vacated, and to General McPherson the department of the Tennessee. He then called for an additional force of 200,000 men.

The appointment of General Grant was received with acclamation by the country. His brilliant campaigns in the West had displayed such eminent abilities, that Congress had conferred upon him the rank of Lieutenant-General—an honor never before conferred upon any man in this country except George Washington.

General Grant immediately proceeded to Washington, and commenced preparations to crush the grand army of General Lee, which had, for nearly three years, resisted successfully the shock of the Union armies. He at once organized an immense force, consisting of the army of the Potomac, under General Meade, consisting of three corps of infantry, numbering nearly 150,000 men, under Hancock, Warren, and Sedgwick; a cavalry corps under General Sheridan; and a reserve corps of about 40,000 men, under General Burnside. The army of the James, under Generals Butler and Gillmore; and the army of the Shenandoah, under Generals Sigel and Emory, were stationed for co-operation with the main army.

Turning from the army of the Potomac to the country west of the Mississippi, we find General Smith, early in March, proceeding up the Red River, accompanied by a mortar fleet under Admiral Porter. On

the 13th of March they captured Fort de Russey, a strong fortification seventy miles from the mouth of the river. Reaching Alexandria, that town immediately surrendered. The fruits of the expedition thus far had been the capture of an immense amount of cotton, which was sent down the river to New Orleans. General Banks had now united his force with that of General Smith, and together, about thirty miles above Alexandria, they met the rebel army under General Dick Taylor, and routed them; but following up their successes, they were attacked by Taylor's reinforced army, at Pleasant Hill, and after a sanguinary engagement, were routed and driven, with heavy loss, in confusion down the river. This was the disastrous Red River expedition. A strong auxiliary force under General Steele had set out from Little Rock, Arkansas, to join General Banks at Shreveport, but learning the fate of the main army, they attempted to return, and were only able to do so after being seriously harassed by the enemy, and losing some 2,000 men, a number of guns, and a large train of wagons.

On the 12th of April, the rebel General Forrest attacked Fort Pillow, about seventy miles above Memphis. Overpowered by numbers, Major Booth, who was in command, surrendered. An immediate and indiscriminate massacre of the garrison followed. Out of the 600 in the fort, only 200 escaped. The larger portion of the garrison were negro soldiers, and it was against them that the special malice of the rebel soldiery was aimed.

On the 17th of April, the rebels attacked Plymouth, North Carolina, which place was occupied by our forces under General Wessels. By the aid of gunboats and an iron-clad ram, they compelled General Wessels to abandon Plymouth and retire to Fort Williams. This place they carried by storm, capturing the entire garrison.

On the morning of the 3d of May, the army of the Potomac broke camp on the north bank of the Rapidan, near Culpepper Court House, and on that and the following day crossed the river. The Second corps, under Hancock, crossed at Ely's Ford, and the Fifth and Sixth corps, under Warren and Sedgwick, crossed at Germania Ford, farther up the river. General Burnside followed up, and held his corps as a reserve on the north bank of the river.

General Lee was strongly entrenched at Mine Run, and seeing that General Grant's design was to flank his right, at once endeavored to resist his progress. The country into which General Grant's army had plunged, on crossing the river, consisted of the dense forest, called the "Wilderness," which was wholly unfit for the service of cavalry or

artillery. Whilst struggling for a position in this forest, Sedgwick's corps was violently attacked by Longstreet on the 5th. The attack was successfully resisted. Longstreet withdrew for a time, and returned to the fight with renewed vigor. He was again repulsed, and withdrew. At the same time a desperate attack was made upon Warren's corps, which was in like manner repulsed. Burnside's reserves had been ordered up, and were of great service in checking the enemy's advance.

On the morning of the 6th the engagement became general all along the lines. So desperate was the fighting that the interval between the opposing lines was, in some places, lost and gained by turns five or six times. At noon Longstreet and Hill made a furious attack upon the left and centre, and gained an advantage, which they soon lost. Towards dark a sudden attack was made upon the right, under Generals Seymour and Shaler, which resulted in the capture of these two generals, and the complete overthrow of this wing of the army. Grant's whole army was now in peril, and might have been lost, but for the stubborn resistance of General Sedgwick, who rallied his troops and held the enemy in check at a vital point until darkness closed the scene. During the night the enemy retired. The losses in Grant's army during these two terrible days was about 15,000. Lee's loss was not less than this. Among the killed in Grant's army were Generals Wadsworth, Hayes, and Webb. Lee lost in killed Generals Jones, Jenkins, and Pickett. Longstreet, Pegram, and Hunter were severely wounded.

Lee fell back to Spottsylvania Court House, and Grant changed his base of supplies to Fredericksburg.

On Saturday, the 7th, sharp skirmishing was kept up, but no general action took place. On the 8th, Grant's advance towards Spottsylvania was checked at a place called Alsop's Farm, where a severe engagement was had, which resulted in the loss of at least 1,300 men on a side. On the 9th there was no general battle, but in the skirmishing that was kept up the Union army lost one of its chief supports by the death of the accomplished and brave General Sedgwick. While superintending the mounting of artillery in what was deemed a safe position, he was instantly killed by a ball from a rebel sharpshooter, which entered his forehead.

On Tuesday, the 10th, and the following day, the entire strength of both armies was in conflict from early morning till nightfall, but no decisive advantage was gained to either side. Early on the morning

of the 12th, under cover of a dense fog, the Second corps, under General Hancock, made an unexpected attack on the enemy's lines, completely surrounded the commands of Generals Edward Johnson and G. H. Stewart, and captured them with their generals. General Hancock brought off 4,000 prisoners, but was obliged to leave the thirty heavy guns which he also took, in consequence of the galling fire of the sharpshooters. During this day and the following, the battle raged with the most obstinate fury along the whole line, and it was doubtful whether either army had any advantage over the other. Both Generals Lee and Meade issued congratulatory orders to their armies for great successes which each claimed. For eight days the two great armies had been almost constantly engaged. General Grant had lost about 35,000 men, in killed, wounded, and captured, and the rebel loss could not have been less.

The fighting was now suspended till the 18th of May, when Hancock and Burnside again attacked the enemy, but with no decisive result. The following three days were occupied by both armies in gaining new positions. Lee occupied a strong position between the North and South Anna Rivers, and Grant crossed the Pamunkey River, established his base of supplies at the White House, and fixed his headquarters on the ground occupied by McClellan two years before.

Both armies were now within fifteen miles of the city of Richmond, and Grant determined to make one more attempt to enter the city. On the 1st of June he took a strong position near Cold Harbor, and on the 3d, after one of the most desperate battles of the war, gained possession of that place. He then assaulted the enemy's works beyond—the last barrier that lay between him and Richmond—but after a protracted and bloody contest, failed to carry their works, and with this failure ended the struggle to enter Richmond from the North. General Grant at once made preparations to cross the James River and attack Richmond from the South. So rapidly was this accomplished that by the 15th of June the entire army had crossed the river, and was encamped before Petersburg.

Turning to the Valley of the Shenandoah, we find a strong movement there, having for its object the capture of Lynchburg, which was the depot of supplies for Lee's army at Richmond. On the 4th of May General Sigel marched upon Staunton, and General Averill upon Wytheville, designing to capture those places, and then to unite with General Crook at Dublin depot, and march upon Lynchburg. Neither

General Averill nor General Crook were able to carry out their plans, and on the 13th, General Sigel, with the main body of the army of the Shenandoah, was attacked by the rebel General Breckinridge and defeated, and driven back in great confusion to Strasburg. Sigel was at once removed, and his command given up to General Hunter. On the 5th of June, Hunter fought the rebel General Jones at Staunton, killed him, and took 1,500 prisoners. After the capture of Staunton, he joined Crook, Averill, and Sullivan, and marched upon Lynchburg, which place he invested, destroying all the railroads leading to it within his reach. On the 18th, the united commands were attacked with such force by General Early, that General Hunter was forced to retreat. His line of retreat up the Shenandoah was cut off, and he was obliged to cross the mountains into Western Virginia. He reached Gauley on the 28th, after a toilsome march, in which his men suffered not only the fatigue of cutting their way through the forests, but the deprivations of hunger.

Relieved of Hunter, General Early, with a force of 22,000 men, marched rapidly up the Shenandoah Valley, and crossed the Potomac above Harper's Ferry. General Sigel, who was at Martinsburg, fell back to Sharpsburg, July 3, for the better protection of his commissary stores. Early marched upon Hagerstown, and took possession of that place. Pressing down towards Baltimore, he was met on the 9th of July by General Lewis Wallace, at Monocacy, where a severe engagement was had, but without checking the enemy's advance. The next day Early took possession of Fredericktown. From this time for four days, the rebel raiders were engaged in gathering plunder from the defenceless people of Maryland, passing down at one time to within six miles of the city of Washington, cutting the railroad and telegraphic communication from the North, and filling the country with apprehensions for the safety of the capital itself. But the storm gathering around him admonished Early that he must retire. On the 13th he recrossed the Potomac, with an immense amount of booty, and safely made his way back to Richmond, after a two days' fight near Winchester, in which the Union Colonel Mulligan was killed. While at Martinsburgh, Early sent General McCausland, with a cavalry force, to Chambersburg, Pennsylvania, which place he entered on the 30th, and destroyed. Twenty-five hundred people were made homeless, and property of the value of \$4,000,000 was destroyed.

When General Grant crossed the Rapidan with the main body of his army, an important coöperative movement was made by General

Butler from Fortress Monroe. With a large force he ascended the James River, and landed at City Point, on the 5th of May, and at once entrenched himself at Bermuda Hundred. He then sent a cavalry force under General Kautz to destroy the railroad communications south of Petersburg. This expedition succeeded in seriously damaging the enemy, and safely returned. General Butler then moved upon Fort Darling, a strong fortress which commanded the approach to Richmond by way of James River. This place he was preparing to invest, when the enemy made a sortie from the fort on the 16th, attacked Butler, and drove him back into his entrenchments. On the 19th, General Kautz made another great raid around Petersburg, cutting the Richmond and Petersburg and Danville railroads, and destroying a large amount of rebel property.

The time was now approaching when the people of the loyal States would be called upon to pass judgment upon the administration of Abraham Lincoln, as his constitutional term of office was expiring. On the 31st of May a convention met at Cleveland, Ohio, and nominated for President, John C. Fremont, and for Vice-President, John Cochrane, of New York. Finding no response from the people, this nomination was soon after declined by the candidates.

On the 7th of June the friends of the administration met in convention at Baltimore, and with entire unanimity re-nominated Mr. Lincoln for President, and Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, for Vice-President. The convention resolved as follows :

1. The rebellion must be suppressed by force of arms.
2. The rebels must not be compromised with upon any terms short of unconditional surrender.
3. In favor of an amendment to the constitution forever prohibiting slavery in the United States.
4. That the gratitude of the American people is due the soldiers and sailors of the army and navy.
5. A full endorsement of President Lincoln for all the measures he had adopted to suppress the rebellion.
6. In favor of harmony in the President's cabinet.
7. In favor of securing full protection to the colored soldiers of the army.
8. In favor of fostering and encouraging foreign immigration.
9. In favor of the Pacific railroad.
10. In favor of adopting effective measures to pay the national debt.
11. A protest against the establishment of foreign influence on this continent.

The opposition to the administration called their convention to meet at Chicago on the 4th of July, but afterwards postponed the same to the 29th of August. At that time the convention met, and nominated

George B. McClellan for President, and George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, for Vice-President. The convention resolved :

1. Adherence to the Union, under the Constitution. 2. That after four years of failure to restore the Union by the experiment of war, efforts be made for a cessation of hostilities, with a view to an ultimate convention of the States, or other peaceable means, to the end that, at the earliest practicable moment, peace may be restored, on the basis of the federal Union of the States. 3. Protesting against military interference in elections, and threatening resistance if it is repeated. 4. In favor of freedom of speech and of the press, and protesting against arbitrary arrests and military trials in States not in insurrection. 5. In favor of prompt measures for the relief of Union prisoners of war at the South. 6. Pledging care, protection, regard, and kindness to the soldiers of the army, "in the event of our attaining power."

The canvass that followed these conventions was remarkably exciting, but the following table shows how overwhelmingly the people sustained the administration of Lincoln when the day of trial came, on Tuesday, the 8th of November :

STATES.	POPULAR VOTE.		ELECTORAL VOTE.	
	LINCOLN.	MC'CLELLAN.	LINCOLN.	MC'CLELLAN.
California	58,698	42,255	5	
Connecticut	44,691	42,285	6	
Delaware	8,115	8,767		3
Illinois	189,496	158,730	16	
Indiana	150,238	130,233	13	
Iowa	89,075	49,596	8	
Kansas	16,441	3,691	4	
Kentucky	26,592	61,478		11
Maine	61,803	44,211	7	
Maryland	40,153	32,739	7	
Massachusetts	126,742	48,745	12	
Michigan	85,352	67,370	8	
Minnesota	25,060	17,375	4	
Missouri	71,676	31,626	11	
Nevada	9,826	6,594	3	
New Hampshire	36,400	32,871	5	
New Jersey	60,723	68,024		7
New York	368,735	361,986	33	
Ohio	264,975	205,557	21	
Oregon	9,888	8,457	3	
Pennsylvania	296,391	276,316	26	
Rhode Island	13,692	8,470	4	
Vermont	42,419	13,321	5	
West Virginia	23,152	10,438	5	
Wisconsin	83,458	65,884	8	
Total	2,203,831	1,797,019	214	21

On the 19th of June, the rebel privateer, *Alabama*, Captain Semmes, which had scourged the sea from nearly the opening of the war, was engaged in the British Channel, by the Union steamer *Kearsarge*, Captain Winslow, and in less than an hour was sunk. The vessels were every way evenly matched. The fight took place near the harbor of Cherbourg, on the French coast. The *Alabama* commenced the attack at 11.10 in the morning. At twelve she was in a sinking state, and attempted to run into Cherbourg, but Captain Winslow ran up within 400 yards of her, and gave her a broadside, which rendered her condition hopeless. Semmes then struck his colors, and his men took to their boats or jumped into the sea. An English yacht, the *Deerhound*, owned by one Mr. Lancaster, was a witness to the combat, and when the *Alabama* sunk, ran up and rescued Semmes and his officers, and about forty of his crew. The *Kearsarge* saved sixty, and nine were picked up by a French pilot boat. The *Deerhound* took Semmes and his men into Southampton, where they were lionized by the people. Captain Winslow took the prisoners he had into Cherbourg, and released them on parole. The *Alabama* had seven men killed and seventeen wounded. The *Kearsarge* did not lose a man.

We have traced the grand army of the Potomac to the South bank of the James River, where it is seated before Petersburg. Turning now to the West, we find General Sherman at Chattanooga, with an army of 99,000 men, moving towards Atlanta, according to a plan agreed upon between himself and General Grant. For corps commanders he had Thomas, McPherson, Schofield, and Hooker. He found opposed to him the corps under Hardee, Hood, and Polk, all under the general command of General Joseph E. Johnston. On the 15th of May, Sherman attacked Johnston at Resaca, and drove him out of that place in a southerly direction. Following him up, he overtook him at Adairsville, and after a sharp engagement, pressed him still farther south. Sherman now encamped at Kingston. On the 23d of May, he supplied his men with twenty days' rations, broke camp, crossed the river Etowah, and entered the dangerous defile known as Altoona Pass. On the 24th he met the enemy at Dallas, and defeated them. On the 6th of June, he reached Ackworth, six miles south of the Pass, where he had the satisfaction of knowing that he had passed through the roughest portion of the mountainous region, and was within reach of the fertile plains of the centre of the State. Johnston confronted him at Kenesaw Mountains, with strong posts at Pilot Knob, and Pine, and Lost Mountains. On the 14th of

June, in an attack on the rebel line between Kenesaw and Pine Mountains, the rebel General Polk was killed. On the 15th, Sherman compelled the enemy to evacuate Pine Mountain, and on the 20th he drove them from Lost Mountain. On the 27th he made an assault on their position on Kenesaw Mountain, and was repulsed with the loss of nearly 3,000 men. The enemy, however, evacuated their position on the 3d of July, and being successively flanked in the positions they removed to, fell back to Atlanta.

General Hood was now placed in command of the rebel army confronting General Sherman, and he adopted a new policy. Sherman's line was now extended to the length of fourteen miles, resting in the form of an arch on the northeast, and within five miles of Atlanta. On the 20th of July General Hood sallied from Atlanta, and made a desperate charge upon Hooker's corps, but was repulsed with the loss of 5,000 men. Hooker lost 1,700. Again on the 22d, he attacked, with terrible energy, the left wing under McPherson, and at first succeeded in breaking the Union lines; but they soon rallied, and checked his advance. Six times he hurled his massed columns against the Union lines, but was repulsed in every attempt. On this day the brave McPherson fell, mortally wounded. His death was a national misfortune, but no one felt it so keenly as General Sherman, who looked to him as his strongest support. Hood's loss in these assaults was about 12,000, and Sherman's less than 2,000. On the 28th Hood again massed his forces and attacked Sherman's right wing, commanded by Logan, and was again repulsed with fearful loss.

The month of August was consumed in breaking up Hood's lines of communication. Stoneman, Kilpatrick, and McCook, with strong cavalry commands, made desperate havoc in all directions. In one of these raids, Stoneman, with nearly his whole command, was captured, and McCook was compelled to cut his way out with great loss; but the effect upon the enemy was to make Atlanta untenable for them. All the attempts of Hood to break the communications of Sherman were disastrous failures. He made a determined attack on Dalton, for that purpose, but was defeated by General Steadman, and forced to retire. Finally, on the night of the 1st of September, Hood blew up his ammunition trains and evacuated Atlanta, retreating southward. The next day Sherman entered the city, and determining to make it a strictly military post, ordered all civilians out of it, sending the loyal North, and the disloyal South. The grand campaign of Atlanta was thus closed, after a conspicuous display, on the part of its great leader,

of all the qualities that go to make up a perfect master of the art of war.

Immediately on transferring his army to the south bank of the James, General Grant commenced operations against Petersburg. This place communicates with the South by means of three railroads—Suffolk, Weldon, and Lynchburg. The Suffolk road was in his possession. On the 22d of June, he moved his Second and Sixth corps upon the Weldon road. The cavalry commands of Wilson and Kautz were also ordered to break up as much of this and the Lynchburg road as possible. These expeditions were eminently successful in destroying the railroads, but were severely handled at Reams' Station and other points on the two roads, and returned in disorder on the 30th, with considerable loss. During all this time a heavy bombardment was kept up upon Petersburg.

General Grant now prepared for a grand assault upon the enemy's works. He constructed a mine 400 feet in length, with two galleries, which ran to a point just in front of Cemetery Hill, the salient of the rebel fortifications. This mine was charged with eight tons of powder. On the morning of the 30th of July, at forty minutes past four o'clock, everything being in readiness, and a strong force having been despatched to the north side of the James River to attack the enemy's left and divert their attention, the mine was exploded with all the violence of an earthquake. A large gap was made by it in the enemy's works, and a North Carolina regiment was blown up or buried. At once one hundred and fifty heavy guns were opened upon the enemy's works. During the previous night the storming party had been arranged, consisting of the Ninth corps in the centre, supported by the Fifth and Eighteenth corps. When the mine exploded there was a fatal delay of the storming party, and when they did move, the enemy's artillery was so trained upon them that they were fairly crushed to death in the awful chasm made by the explosion of the mine. They were repulsed with the loss of nearly six thousand men.

True to his policy of giving the enemy no rest, General Grant attacked them on the 13th of August on the north bank of the James, near Deep Bottom, capturing 500 prisoners; and on the 18th made another attack upon them at Reams' Station, on the Weldon road, and took possession of the road. The fighting at this point continued for six days, with great loss on both sides, but resulted in the rebels being repulsed.

Dissatisfied with the management in the Shenandoah Valley, Gen-

eral Grant organized it into a new department, and put General Philip H. Sheridan in command of it. On the 10th of August General Mosby broke Sheridan's communications at Berryville. On the 21st, Sheridan was attacked near Charlestown, and compelled to fall back to Halltown. General Sheridan now gathered the full strength of his command, and pursued Early, defeating him on the 19th at Opequan Creek, and on the 22d at Fisher's Hill, and driving him out of the valley. Sheridan now turned his attention to the destruction of everything in the lower part of the valley which was capable of protecting or sustaining the guerrilla forces which had given our armies so much annoyance. By the 7th of October he had fallen back to Woodstock, after having rendered desolate everything in his path up to that point. Among the property destroyed were two thousand barns, filled with wheat, hay, and farming implements, and seventy mills filled with flour and wheat. He also captured four thousand cattle and a large number of horses. From Woodstock, Sheridan fell back to Cedar Creek, beyond Strasburg. Here he was attacked by Early, who had followed him up, on the 19th of October. At the time of the attack, Sheridan was fifteen miles away from his command, and everything threatened disaster to his army. His left flank was turned, and his men all fell back four miles, losing twenty-four pieces of artillery. Sheridan arrived on the field at noon, reformed his broken columns, infused his own spirit into his men, and turning upon Early, defeated and almost annihilated his army.

A provoking, rather than a serious affair, occurred on the 16th of September. General Wade Hampton, at the head of a small party of rebel cavalry, swept around General Grant's cattle-yard at Harrison's Landing, and carried safely off 2,500 head of cattle.

Fighting was kept up incessantly around Richmond and Petersburg, on both sides of the river, and a terrific bombardment of Petersburg never ceased. At Chapin's Farm and on Newmarket Heights, on the 29th and 30th of September, severe engagements were had with unimportant advantages to General Grant. On the 7th of October, a desperate attack was made on Terry's division on the Darbytown road, which was unsuccessful. Indeed the whole of the month of October was passed by both armies near Richmond in determined movements, with great loss on both sides, but no apparent advantage to either. It was evident, however, that the rebels were losing strength, in consequence of the destruction of their supplies and the interruption of their means of communication.

After the battle of Cedar Creek, General Sheridan's army moved back to the vicinity of Winchester, and during the winter was mainly engaged as an army of observation. Sheridan, in the meantime, however, desolated the Blue Ridge Valley, as he had that of the Shenandoah, to break up the guerrilla marauding.

On the 7th of October, the rebel privateer *Florida* was captured in the harbor of Bahia, on the coast of Brazil, by the United States steamer *Wachusett*, Captain Collins. At the time of the capture, the captain and crew were ashore. She was brought back to Hampton Roads by her captors, and while a discussion was going on between the Brazilian government and ours, whether Captain Collins did right to take the ship in the friendly waters of Brazil, the *Florida* was run into and sunk by an army transport, on the night of the 19th of November. This brought the controversy about her to a close.

In November a most damaging blow was struck at the rebel power by General Stoneman, who penetrated southwestern Virginia, and on the 20th of that month destroyed the immense salt and lead works at Saltville, and broke up a large portion of the East Tennessee and Virginia railroad.

On the 13th of December, a fleet of sixty-five vessels of war and one hundred transports sailed from Fortress Monroe, bound for Fort Fisher, which commanded Wilmington harbor. The land force on board was 7,000 men, and the whole expedition was under command of General Butler. Wilmington was the only seaport left the rebels on the Atlantic coast, and an immense trade was carried on between that port and Bermuda, in spite of the efforts of the blockading squadron to prevent it. On the 23d the fleet reached the harbor in front of the fort, and commenced operations by exploding a powder vessel within five hundred yards of the fort. Although this vessel was loaded with two hundred barrels of powder, and it was supposed would blow the fort down and render it untenable, it made no impression upon the fortification whatever. A heavy bombardment from the fleet followed, and a force of 3,000 men was landed and made an assault upon the fort, but the first attack was repulsed, and General Butler hurriedly withdrew his forces on the 27th, and returned to Fortress Monroe.

Mortified at this failure, which he deemed unnecessary, General Grant at once ordered General Butler to turn over his command to General Alfred H. Terry, and to report from Lowell, Massachusetts. General Terry was ordered back to Fort Fisher. He reached the fort

on the 13th of January, and landed his troops and carried the place by assault on the 14th, capturing one thousand prisoners. General Terry's loss was mostly caused by the explosion of the magazine of the fort on the 16th, which was occasioned by a careless soldier, and by which 265 men were killed and wounded.

Early in August a fleet, consisting of fourteen sloops-of-war and four iron-clad monitors, under the invincible Farragut, sailed from New Orleans for Mobile harbor, to seize the forts at the entrance of that harbor, and break it up as a port for blockade-running. The three forts, Morgan, Powell, and Gaines, at the entrance of Mobile Bay, were very strong works, and considered impregnable by the rebels. On the morning of the 4th, the fleet sailed up the channel, and the gunboat Tecumseh, Captain Craven, fired the first shot, when she was almost immediately seen to careen and sink, carrying her commander and all her crew down with her. She had struck one of the torpedoes with which the harbor was filled. But the main reliance of the rebels was an enormous iron-clad ram, the Tennessee, which was considered the most powerful war vessel ever constructed. This monster was supported by three formidable gunboats. Such was the power with which Farragut's fleet moved, that before nine o'clock in the morning the forts were captured and passed, and all the rebel gunboats dispersed or crippled. Then commenced what Farragut himself describes as "one of the fiercest naval combats on record." The whole fleet attacked the great rebel ram. The attack was made not only with their guns, but "bows on at full speed." Not less than four of the largest vessels of the fleet ran upon the monster full force, doing themselves far more damage than they did the ram, while at the same time the smaller vessels swarmed around, and poured volley after volley of heavy shot into all parts of it. This contest lasted only two hours, when Admiral Buchanan, commanding the Tennessee, struck his colors, and the contest was over. No attempt was made to take possession of Mobile, for the possession of the harbor broke up the trade of the city, which was the object of the expedition. During this fight Admiral Farragut was lashed into the maintop of his vessel, the better to observe the progress of the battle.

When General Sherman took possession of Atlanta in September, he intended to remain there only long enough to recruit his troops, and then push forward for Savannah, through the heart of Georgia. But he soon found that he must first contest with General Hood for the possession of the railroad to Chattanooga, by which he was

receiving his supplies. Hood attacked the road between Resaca and Dalton, and took possession of it, but was quickly driven into Northern Alabama by General Sherman. Forrest made a demonstration upon the road between Nashville and Chattanooga, but he, too, was soon driven out of the way by General Thomas. General Sherman had now no difficulty in bringing up all needed supplies, and was soon in condition for a forward movement. He sent to General Thomas force enough, so that he knew that brave soldier could take care of Tennessee, and then took up the railroad from Atlanta to Chattanooga, and sent it back to the latter place, together with all the property of value at Atlanta. On the 4th of November he sent the President the following characteristic telegram :

“Hood has crossed the Tennessee. Thomas will take care of him and Nashville, while Schofield will not let him into Chattanooga or Knoxville. Georgia and South Carolina are at my mercy—and I shall strike. Do not be anxious about me. I am all right.”

On the 15th of November Atlanta was evacuated and destroyed, and Sherman took up his march to the sea, which was distant by the route he proposed to take, 300 miles. His army consisted of 60,000 infantry and artillery, and 10,000 cavalry, and moved in two main columns, extending nearly sixty miles. Gen. Howard commanded the right wing, composed of the Fifteenth and Seventeenth corps, and General Slocum the left, consisting of the Fourteenth and Twentieth corps, while the cavalry, under General Kilpatrick, covered the flanks. The orders to march not over fifteen miles a day were strictly enforced. The route lay through one of the most fertile regions of the South, and the army found no difficulty in subsisting upon the country. The march of the army was attended with the destruction of everything in its path. No white men were found, but the negroes gathered around the army in swarms. On the 20th the army reached Milledgeville, the capital of Georgia, but everything movable of value had been taken away. On the 9th of December, the advance was so near the coast that one of Sherman's scouts succeeded in reaching General Foster at Hilton Head, and reporting himself. On the 12th the whole army was within ten miles of Savannah. On the 13th Sherman stormed Fort McAllister, which commanded the approach of Savannah from the sea, and captured it, which put the city of Savannah at his feet. On the 20th Savannah was evacuated by Hardee, and on the 22d, Sherman took possession, and wrote the President as follows :

“I beg to present to you as a Christmas gift, the city of Savannah,

with 150 heavy guns and plenty of ammunition, and also about 25,000 bales of cotton."

On the 28th, a meeting of the citizens of Savannah was held, under a call from Mayor Arnold, and a resolution was unanimously adopted, "to accept peace, submitting to the national authority under the constitution, laying aside all differences, and burying by-gones in the grave of the past."

When General Sherman left Atlanta for the coast, General Hood commenced his movements for the recapture of Tennessee. Hood and Beauregard moved up the Tennessee River to Athens, while Thomas fell back, concentrating his army at Nashville. At Franklin, eighteen miles south of Nashville, General Schofield was posted with a strong force. On the 30th of November, Hood's entire army attacked Schofield at this place, with desperate energy, but were repulsed with the loss of 6,000 men. Schofield's loss was 2,500. Schofield then fell back and joined General Thomas at Nashville. Hood pressed forward boldly and laid siege to Nashville, where for two weeks there were no movements on either side. Being in readiness on the 15th, Thomas assumed the offensive, and attacked Hood in his intrenchments. Hood was not only defeated, but his army was utterly destroyed. Six days' terrible fighting, ending in the shattered remnants of his army being driven across the Tennessee River, with the loss of eighteen generals, 17,000 men, and sixty-eight pieces of artillery. A coöperating force under Forrest attacked Murfreesboro on the 15th, where Rousseau was stationed, and was as badly cut up as the main body. This ended the war in Tennessee. Hood escaped into Alabama, after being still further harrassed by General Grierson's cavalry, and passed out of sight.

The vigorous measures of General Sheridan had cleared the valley of the Shenandoah of all hostile troops, and at the opening of the year 1865, the attention of the country was fixed upon the armies under Sherman and Grant.

Immediately after the capture of Fort Fisher, on the 15th of January, General Terry moved up the river to Wilmington, which place he took possession of on the 22d of February, after a slight resistance by the rebel troops.

At the opening of the year 1865, it will be seen, then, that the theatre of military operations had been narrowed down to the country between the James and Savannah Rivers, including the south half of Virginia and the two Carolinas; and in this region there were two

rebel armies—one under General Lee of 100,000 men, commanding at Richmond, and the other under General Joseph E. Johnston, with with 50,000 men, confronting the victorious legions of Sherman. Grant's and Lee's armies were at dead-lock in front of Petersburg during the month of January, the monotony being varied only by an unsuccessful attempt to open a canal at Dutch Gap, six hundred feet long, by which seven miles of river navigation could be saved. This project was conceived by General B. F. Butler.

On the 5th of February General Grant swung his left around at Hatcher's Run, and advanced his lines, after a hard struggle, the distance of four miles. This was the only important event of the month.

A "Peace Conference," so called, was held on the third of February, on board the steamer *River Queen*, at Fortress Monroe. The parties to the conference on the Union side were President Lincoln and Secretary Seward; on the other side, Vice President A. H. Stephens, R. M. T. Hunter, and Judge J. A. Campbell, the representatives of Jefferson Davis. This interview was arranged by the veteran politician Francis P. Blair, who visited Richmond by Mr. Lincoln's sanction, for that purpose. Nothing came of this conference, for Mr. Lincoln demanded, as a preliminary, "First, the restoration of the national authority throughout all the States; second, no receding by the executive of the United States on the slavery question from the position assumed therein in the late annual message to Congress, and in the preceding documents; third, no cessation of hostilities short of an end of the war, and the disbanding of all the forces hostile to the government."

Early in the month of February, General Sherman commenced moving northward towards Charleston. On the 11th he reached and occupied Branchville, sixty-two miles northwest of Charleston, the junction of several railroads by which Charleston was supplied with the necessaries of life. On the 18th he entered Columbia, the capital of the State. Charleston was thus cut off from supplies, and the only thing remaining for General Hardee, who commanded at that place, to do, was to save as many of his men as possible, and leave the city. General Gillmore, who commanded the Union forces in Charleston harbor, noticed on the morning of the 18th that Forts Sumter and Moultrie had been evacuated during the preceding night. He at once entered and took possession of the city, and once more raised the Stars and Stripes on Fort Sumter. The city was fired by the retreating troops in many parts, and before the fire could be extinguished,

two-thirds of the business portion was in ashes. The appearance of the city as our troops entered it, was in the last degree desolate. Business streets were so overgrown with undisturbed vegetation, that people walking on opposite sides of them were invisible to each other. An actual bombardment upon it for the space of 542 days—commencing August 22, 1863—had fairly riddled with shot a large proportion of the buildings, and many were utterly demolished. Only 15,000 people, black and white, were found remaining in this once proud capital of the South. Order was soon restored in the city, and the fleets of steam and sailing vessels arriving and departing signified that intercourse with the world was once more resumed.

General Sherman pressed on to the northward without interruption, and on the 3d of March occupied Cheraw, and on the 11th entered Fayetteville, North Carolina, and opened communication with Wilmington, by way of Cape Fear River. The only collisions with the enemy during his march, were at Aiken, Cheraw, and near Fayetteville, where Kilpatrick had a skirmish with Wade Hampton.

On the 4th of March, President Lincoln was inaugurated for a second term of office. On this occasion he delivered the following address, which, in the light of subsequent events, will be read with deep interest while anything connected with his administration is remembered among men :

SECOND INAUGURAL ADDRESS OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

FELLOW COUNTRYMEN :

At this second appearing to take the oath of the presidential office, there is less occasion for an extended address than there was at the first. Then a statement somewhat in detail of a course to be pursued seemed very fitting and proper. Now, at the expiration of four years, during which public declarations have been constantly called forth on every point and phase of the great contest which still absorbs the attention and engrosses the energies of the nation, little that is new could be presented.

The progress of our arms—upon which all else chiefly depends—is as well known to the public as to myself; and it is, I trust, reasonably satisfactory and encouraging to all. With high hope for the future, no prediction in regard to it is ventured.

On the occasion corresponding to this four years ago, all thoughts were anxiously directed to an impending civil war. All dreaded it; all sought to avoid it. While the inaugural address was being delivered from this place, devoted altogether to saving the Union without war, insurgent agents were in the city seeking to destroy it without war—seeking to dissolve the Union and divide the effects by negotiation.

Both parties deprecated war ; but one of them would make war rather than let the nation survive, and the other would accept war rather than let it perish ; and the war came.

One-eighth of the whole population were colored slaves, not distributed generally over the Union, but localized in the southern part of it. These slaves constituted a peculiar and powerful interest. All knew that this interest was somehow the cause of the war. To strengthen, perpetuate, and extend this interest was the object for which the insurgents would rend the Union by war, while the government claimed no right to do more than restrict the territorial enlargement of it.

Neither party expected for the war the magnitude or the duration which it has already attained. Neither anticipated that the cause of the conflict might cease, even before the conflict itself should cease. Each looked for an easier triumph and a result less fundamental and astounding.

Both read the same Bible, and pray to the same God, and each invokes His aid against the other. It may seem strange that any men should dare to ask a just God's assistance in wringing their bread from the sweat of other men's faces ; but let us judge not, that we be not judged. The prayers of both should not be answered. That of neither has been answered fully. The Almighty has His own purposes. Woe unto the world because of offences, for it must needs be that offences come ; but woe to that man by whom the offence cometh. If we shall suppose that American slavery is one of these offences—which, in the providence of God, must needs come, but which, having continued through His appointed time, He now wills to remove, and that He gives to both North and South this terrible war as the woe due to those by whom the offence came—shall we discern therein any departure from those divine attributes which the believers in a living God always ascribe to Him? Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet, if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled by the bondman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid by another drawn by the sword, as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said that the judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether.

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wound, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widows and orphans ; to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

Up to the time of his arrival at Fayetteville, General Sherman had captured fourteen cities, eighty-five cannon, four thousand prisoners, twenty-five thousand horses, mules and cattle, and liberated over fifteen thousand prisoners and slaves.

On the 14th he left Fayetteville for Goldsborough, where he had arranged to form a junction with General Schofield on the 22d, and where he would be put in direct communication with Washington, by

way of the Neuse River and Newbern. The enemy now, for the first time since he left Atlanta, menaced Sherman in front with a formidable army. Hardee and Bragg had joined Johnston, and on the 15th and 16th struggled without avail to resist Sherman's march. On the 19th, at Bentonville, Sherman found them strongly entrenched, determined to prevent his junction with Schofield; for Johnston well knew that if that junction was once effected, the combined army could not be successfully resisted anywhere. As Sherman approached, Johnston threw his massed forces upon the left wing, commanded by General Sherman, and drove it back. Reinforcements were at once brought up, and the rebel advance checked. Again and again Johnston threw his whole strength in the most desperate charges upon Sherman's lines, but the veterans stood firm as a rock, and repelled them. Night closed the conflict, and during the night the enemy retired. On the 22d, agreeable to an appointment made in Savannah, Sherman entered Goldsborough, and met Schofield.

Schofield's march from Newbern to Goldsborough was resisted at Kinston by General Bragg, on the 7th, the day after he left Newbern, where Bragg captured 1500 prisoners and gained a temporary advantage by a flank movement. But Schofield rallied and repulsed him, and moved forward to Goldsborough unobstructed.

Arrived at Goldsborough, General Sherman reported to General Grant that he had lost, since leaving Savannah, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, only 2,500 men. Sherman at once hastened to City Point, where he had an interview with General Grant and the President, and where, between them, the plans were arranged for the finishing blows at the rebel power.

We now approach the grand movements of Grant and Sheridan, by which the rebel power was crushed, and the war brought to a close.

On the 27th of February, Sheridan left Winchester with nearly the whole of his command, and on the 6th of March had defeated Early at Waynesborough, and entered Charlottesville. Here he divided his command in two columns; one under General Deven took a direct southern route to Scottsville, destroying everything capable of subsisting an army, and then turned towards Lynchburg, to meet the other division, which had proceeded directly to that place. Both divisions then moved around the north side of Richmond, destroying everything in their path, including the Lynchburg canal, crossed the James River at Deep Bottom, and joined Grant south of Petersburg.

On the 25th of March, at daybreak, General Lee made an attack

upon Fort Steadman, the strongest position in Grant's lines, and captured it, but was soon driven out of it with a loss of 3,000 men. The same day General Grant attacked the enemy at Hatcher's Run, and succeeded in gaining an advanced position, after a desperate fight.

On the 29th the main column of the army moved out on the Vaughan road, towards Dinwiddie Court House. They crossed Hatcher's Run, the enemy resisting languidly. General Meade was in the front, and General Grant accompanied him. At night officers and men encamped on the field during a pelting rain.

On the 30th, the lines were pushed forward to Dabney's Mills, where the enemy were entrenched and soon opened fire, which impeded the advance for the day, although full possession was taken of the Boydton road.

At daylight on the morning of the 31st, General Warren advanced with the Fifth corps, in a northwesterly direction, to secure the White Oak road. He had not proceeded more than two miles when he was attacked furiously in front and on both flanks, and driven back in great disorder. The elated enemy pursued incautiously, and were in turn attacked by General Miles, and driven from the field. Again General Warren advanced, and secured the position for which he started in the morning. General Grant moved over the field during the day, and carefully watched every movement. At night, dissatisfied with Warren, he displaced him, and gave the supreme command of his corps to General Sheridan.

The next morning, Saturday, April 1, Sheridan moved his entire command against the enemy at Five Forks, and after one of the most terrible battles of the war, succeeded in driving them into their intrenchments, where he flanked them and captured six thousand prisoners. This victory, indeed, had no more been done, would have compelled the evacuation of Richmond; but Grant did not stop here.

On Sunday he ordered an attack along the entire line in front of Petersburg, with the whole power of his army. The attack was successful. During that night Petersburg was abandoned, and at two o'clock on Monday morning was occupied by our troops. Simultaneously with the evacuation of Petersburg, the rebels fled from Richmond.

The first indication that the troops under General Weitzel had of the evacuation of Richmond was the explosions early on Monday morning in the river above, which were very heavy, and gave the assurance that something extraordinary was transpiring. General Weitzel im-

mediately advanced his picket line, and soon after the Twenty-fourth corps was formed and ordered forward cautiously. The rebel picket line was found evacuated, and immediately the whole corps followed with the wildest enthusiasm. The works were of the most formidable character, and could not have been carried by assault, except at a fearful loss of life. They consisted of earthworks constructed in the most skilful manner, and protected by artfully planned abatis and ditches. The forts mounted in all about three hundred guns, many of them of very heavy calibre, and to a great extent uninjured.

The advance into the city was led by General Ripley, commanding the second brigade of the Twenty-fourth army corps, General Weitzel and staff accompanying it. When near the city a detachment of the Fourth Massachusetts cavalry was sent in with a demand upon Mayor Mayo for its surrender, which was at once complied with. As the column entered the city it was greeted with the most enthusiastic demonstrations of joy, especially on the part of the negro population, who hailed with the most extravagant jubilation the appearance of their sable brethren in arms.

The Twenty-fourth army corps then took possession of the city, and General Weitzel established his headquarters, temporarily, at the Virginia House of Delegates in Capitol Square. He issued an order proclaiming martial law, and assuring the people that he had come to restore the blessings of peace under the flag of the Union. He requested them to remain in their homes and to avoid all assemblages in the street. He appointed General Shepley military governor, and Colonel Frederick S. Manning, provost-marshal of the city.

On taking command as military governor, General Shepley issued an order, in which he said that the armies of the rebellion having abandoned all efforts to enslave Virginia, and having attempted to fire the capital, which they could no longer hold by force of arms, it would be the first duty of our armies to extinguish the flames, and save the city. He ordered Colonel Manning to detail a force under the provost guard to use the utmost efforts to stay the ravages of the flames, which had already destroyed nearly forty blocks of houses. He also ordered the prompt punishment of every man who was found pillaging or foraging on his own account.

The evacuation of Richmond had been in progress for some weeks, and the citizens generally understood that the city was to be given up, but at what time no one except General Lee knew. The public archives were removed to Lynchburg, and the valuable effects of the banks and

private citizens also took their flight for a place of security about the same time. As soon as General Grant's movement from the immediate front of Petersburg became clearly defined, prominent citizens prepared for a hasty departure, feeling confident that the city could not much longer be held by the army of Lee. Upon the departure of the army on Sunday, the cotton, tobacco, and commissary stores were set on fire by the rebel troops, but owing to the exertions of Colonel Manning, the fire was extinguished, and the entire city was saved from being left a mass of smoking ruins.

Jeff. Davis left on Sunday noon, with his family, taking the Danville road. He had removed the most valuable portion of his furniture many days previous. Just before he left he received a cipher despatch from General Lee, which, doubtless, accelerated his departure.

On the 4th, President Lincoln entered Richmond, and was received with great enthusiasm. He occupied the mansion of the late rebel President.

General Lee, on leaving Richmond, aimed to reach Lynchburg. On the morning of the 5th, he had reached Amelia Court House, forty-seven miles from Richmond, with a still large and formidable army. The fiery Sheridan, by a wide detour, had reached Burkesville the same day, fifteen miles in advance of him. He at once sent word to General Grant to come up immediately, for there was now no escape for Lee. In the meantime he attacked the enemy's flank with success, and at Dentonville, General Meade, who had arrived, attacked his centre, and captured several thousand prisoners.

General Grant arrived on the 7th, and seeing the situation, at once addressed the following letter to General Lee :

"General : The result of the last week must convince you of the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the army of Northern Virginia in this struggle. I feel that it is so, and regard it as my duty to shift from myself the responsibility of any further effusion of blood, by asking of you the surrender of that portion of the C. S. army, known as the army of Northern Virginia."

To which General Lee replied :

"General : I received your note of this date. Though not entirely of the opinion you express of the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the army of Northern Virginia, I reciprocate your desire to avoid useless effusion of blood, and therefore, before considering your proposition, ask the terms you will offer, on condition of its surrender."

General Grant replied on the next day, the 8th, that "peace being my first desire, there is but one condition that I insist upon, viz., that the men surrendered shall be disqualified for taking up arms against the government of the United States, until properly exchanged."

On General Lee asking for more particular terms, General Grant replied on the 9th, as follows :

"General R. E. Lee, Commanding C. S. A. :

"In accordance with the substance of my letter to you, of the 8th instant, I propose to receive the surrender of the army of Northern Virginia on the following terms, to wit :

"Rolls of all the officers and men to be made in duplicate, one copy to be given to an officer designated by me, the other to be retained by such officers as you may designate.

"The officers to give their individual paroles not to take arms against the United States until properly exchanged, and each company or regimental commander to sign a like parole for the men of their commands.

"The arms, artillery, and public property to be parked and stacked, and turned over to the officers appointed by me to receive them. This will not embrace the side-arms of the officers, nor their private horses or baggage.

"This done, each officer and man will be allowed to return to their homes, not to be disturbed by the United States authority, so long as they observe their parole and the laws in force where they may reside."

These terms were at once accepted by General Lee, and the soldiers were soon dispersed to their homes.

As soon as General Johnston heard of the surrender of Lee, he capitulated to General Sherman, receiving the same terms as were accorded to Lee. A few weeks later, the rebel army west of the Mississippi, under Kirby Smith, surrendered, Mobile was given up, and the Southern Confederacy vanished from human sight.

While the country was ringing with joy over the close of the great war, which for four years had taxed the resources and absorbed the best blood of the land, an event occurred that turned all hearts to mourning, and struck the world with horror.

On the evening of Friday, April 14, President Lincoln and wife, with other friends, visited Ford's Theatre, in Washington, for the purpose of witnessing the performance of the "American Cousin."

The theatre was densely crowded, and everybody seemed delighted

with the scene before them. During the third act, and while there was a temporary pause for one of the actors to enter, at 9.30 p. m., a sharp report of a pistol was heard, which merely attracted attention, but suggested nothing serious, until a man rushed to the front of the President's box, waving a long dagger in his right hand, and exclaiming, "*Sic semper tyrannis*," and immediately leaped from the box, which was in the second tier, to the stage beneath, and ran across to the opposite side, making his escape amid the bewilderment of the audience, from the rear of the theatre, and mounting a horse, fled.

In his leap from the box, he caught his spur in a flag that was festooned in front, and was thrown violently upon the stage, seriously fracturing one of his legs.

The screams of Mrs. Lincoln first disclosed the fact to the audience that the President had been shot, when all present rose to their feet, rushing toward the stage, many exclaiming, "Hang him! hang him!"

The excitement was of the wildest possible description, and of course there was an abrupt termination of the theatrical performance.

There was a rush towards the President's box, when cries were heard, "Stand back and give him air." "Has any one stimulants?" On a hasty examination, it was found that the President had been shot through the head, above and back of the temporal bone, and that some of the brain was oozing out. He was removed to a private house opposite the theatre, and the surgeon-general of the army and other surgeons sent for to attend to his condition.

On an examination of the private box blood was discovered on the back of the cushioned rocking-chair on which the President had been sitting, also on the partition and on the floor. A common single-barreled pocket pistol was found on the carpet.

The assassin, John Wilkes Booth, a play-actor, had been observed working his way through the crowd of persons towards the box occupied by the presidential party, but of course no suspicion was excited by the circumstance. When he reached the sentry at the door of the box, he was of course refused admittance; but in a whisper he announced himself as a senator, and said the President had sent for him. He was then allowed to pass in, when an attendant confronted in a low tone of voice with, "You mistake, sir; this is the President's box." Booth graciously begged pardon, turned to go, and struck at him with a knife, inflicting a severe but not dangerous wound. He stepped out of the box, passed on to the second door, which was closed,

fired through it, stepped back again in the box at the first door, and in an instant had sprung out upon the stage. The whole affair was the work of thirty seconds.

In a few minutes after water and stimulants had been handed up to the box, a way was cleared through the excited and confused crowd, and the President was taken across to the residence of Mr. Peterson, opposite the theatre, on Tenth Street, where he remained till he expired.

The Rev. Dr. Gurley, of the New York Avenue Presbyterian Church, immediately on its being ascertained that life was extinct, knelt at the bedside and offered an impressive prayer, which was responded to by all present.

Dr. Gurley then proceeded to the front parlor, where Mrs. Lincoln, Captain Robert Lincoln, Mr. John Hay, the private secretary, and others, were waiting, where he again offered a prayer for the consolation of the family.

The scenes in the sick chamber are reported to have been of an unusually affecting character. Mrs. Lincoln and her two sons gave way to the most uncontrollable grief and lamentations; the former accusing herself, in her frantic grief, for having gone to the theatre, and other womanly exhibitions of deep suffering, too sad and too delicate for description. Around the bedside, at intervals, were Secretary Stanton, who fairly wept tears at the sad spectacle. The President was insensible, and spoke no word after he was shot. At about half-past eleven, the motion of the muscles of his face indicated as if he were trying, or about to speak, but no intelligible word escaped him. The blood from the wound in his neck interfered with his breathing; his pulse was low, but otherwise he seemed to be without pain. At four o'clock, the symptoms of restlessness returned, and at six the premonitions of dissolution set in. His face, which had been quite pale, began to assume a waxy transparency, the jaw to fall, and the teeth to be seen. Gradually and calmly, without a ruffle or a groan, his spirit passed away, and at twenty-two minutes past seven, on the morning of April 15th, all that bound the soul of Abraham Lincoln to earth was loosened, and the heavenly spark fled to its Maker. And so closed the eventful career of one of the most remarkable men of our country's history, one whose lot it was to take a leading part in, perhaps, the greatest drama of all time.

A few minutes before the assassination of the President, a man, tall, athletic, and dressed in light-colored clothes, alighted from a horse in

front of Mr. Seward's residence in Madison place, where the secretary was lying very feeble from recent injuries. Leaving his horse standing, the stranger rang at the door, and informed the servant who admitted him that he desired to see Mr. Seward. The servant responded that Mr. Seward was very ill, and that no visitors were admitted. "But I am a messenger from Dr. Verdi, Mr. Seward's physician; I have a prescription which I must deliver to him myself." The servant still demurring, the stranger, without further parley, pushed him aside and ascended the stairs. Moving to the right, he proceeded toward Mr. Seward's room, and was about to enter it, when Mr. Frederick Seward appeared from an opposite doorway and demanded his business. He responded in the same manner as to the servant below, but being met with a refusal, suddenly closed the controversy by striking Mr. Seward a severe blow across the forehead with the butt of a pistol. As the first victim fell, Major Seward, another and younger son of the secretary, emerged from his father's room. Without a word the man drew a knife and struck the major several blows with it, rushing into the chamber as he did so; then, after dealing the nurse a horrible wound across the bowels, he sprang to the bed upon which the secretary lay, stabbing him two or three times in the face and neck. Mr. Seward arose convulsively and fell from the bed to the floor. Turning and brandishing his knife anew, the assassin fled from the room, cleared the prostrate form of Frederick Seward in the hall, descended the stairs in three leaps, and was out of the door and upon his horse in an instant. It is stated by a person who saw him mount that, although he leaped upon his horse with most unseemly haste, he trotted away around the corner of the block with circumspect deliberation.

The miscreant who committed this act was Lewis Payne (his real name was Powell), the son of a Baptist clergyman in Florida, and a deserter from the rebel army. He was arrested on the night of the 17th, at the house of Mrs. Mary E. Surratt, and at the same time Mrs. Surratt was herself arrested. George A. Atzerott, an accomplice with Booth and Payne, whose designated work was the murder of Vice-President Johnson, lacked courage to perform his work, and was arrested on the 20th, at Middleburg, in Maryland.

After committing the fatal deed, Booth mounted his horse, and was joined by David C. Harold, a young man whom he had engaged as an accomplice to aid him in his escape. They rode thirty-five miles to Brvantown, Maryland, the residence of one Dr. Samuel Mudd, where his fractured leg was dressed. He represented to the doctor that his

leg was fractured by being thrown from his horse. After leaving Bryantown they contrived to cross the Potomac, and secrete themselves in the vicinity of Port Royal, on the Rappahannock River where they were traced by a cavalry detachment under Lieut.-Colonel Conger. Finally they were traced to the house of a man named Garrett, three miles from Port Royal. The cavalry party surrounded the house and barn at two o'clock on Wednesday morning, April 26th, twelve days after the murder of the President. Booth and Harold had taken refuge in the barn. The barn was surrounded, and Booth ordered to give himself up. This he refused to do; but Harold thrust out his hands, and was pulled from the door, tied, and placed in the charge of a guard.

When Harold had come out, Colonel Conger was satisfied that further parley with Booth was vain; that he would not surrender; and, passing to the other side of the barn, he pulled out a wisp of hay from one of the crevices, and lighting it by a match, thrust it back among the hay. Within a few minutes the blazing hay lighted up the inside of the barn. Booth, who was at first discovered leaning upon a crutch, threw it down, and with a carbine in his hands, came towards the side where the fire had been applied. But the light of the fire inside prevented him from seeing who was on the outside. He paused, looked at the fire for a moment, and then started towards the door.

When about the middle of the barn, he was shot by Sergeant Corbett, who had, meanwhile, crept up to the barn, and fired through a crevice of the boards.

Booth fell on the floor of the barn. Colonel Conger and Lieutenant Baker immediately entered, and with the assistance of two of the soldiers, removed the wounded man, and placed him on the grass outside the barn. He appeared to be insensible, but in a few minutes partially revived, and made efforts to speak. By placing his ear close to Booth's mouth, Colonel Conger heard him say, "Tell mother I die for my country."

He was then carried to the porch of Garrett's house. Colonel Conger sent to Port Royal for a physician, who, on his arrival, found Booth dying. Before the moment of final dissolution he repeated, "Tell mother I died for my country. I did what I thought was for the best."

When an effort was made to revive him, by bathing his face and hands in cold water, he uttered the words, "useless—useless."

He was shot at about fifteen minutes past three, A. M., and died a little after seven, A. M.

The body of Booth was taken to Washington, and was disposed of secretly, so that no one now knows what was done with it except those who had it in charge. Harold was sent to prison.


The parties implicated as principals and accomplices in the murder of the President, were arraigned before a military commission, in Washington, and after a long and full trial, four of them, viz., Mrs. Surratt, Payne, Harold, and Atzerott, were sentenced to death, and hung on Friday, the 7th of July. Dr. Mudd, Arnold, and O'Laughlin are now in the Dry Tortugas, sentenced to imprisonment for life; and Spangler, the servant of Booth, is serving out his sentence of six years' in the same place. John Surratt, a son of Mrs. Surratt, who was executed, fled to Europe, but was pursued and found, — an enlisted soldier in the army of the Pope. He was captured, and brought back for trial.

The confederate president, Davis, as we have stated, left Richmond on Sunday noon, April 2, under a large cavalry escort, taking his family with him. At Danville he issued a proclamation declaring that, although under a cloud, he would soon return, and restore the fortunes of his people. The capitulation of Gen. Johnston, however, to Sherman, dispelled all hope of further resistance; and Davis and his party rapidly fled towards Georgia. His design was to reach and cross the Mississippi River, and escape through Mexico. After reaching the borders of Georgia, the party were surrounded by Union cavalry, and were obliged to direct their course for the coast, with the hope of escaping by sea.

Reaching Irwinville on the 9th of May, they were intercepted by a detachment of the Fourth Michigan Cavalry, under Col. Pritchard, and captured. Mr. Davis was taken to Fortress Monroe, and put in close confinement. On the 23d of May he was duly indicted for treason by the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia, but, through various flaws and formalities, was not brought up for trial till May 13, 1867. He then appeared before the United States Court at Richmond, Va., and was admitted to bail in the sum of \$100,000, and, on being set at liberty, proceeded to Canada to join his family. After various ineffectual attempts to bring his case to trial, he was finally, on the 19th of February, 1869, officially notified that it had been erased from the docket, and he would no more be interfered with.

CHAPTER LVII.

ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JOHNSON.

N the morning of the 15th of April, Andrew Johnson took the oath of office, and entered upon his duties as President of the United States. Born in Raleigh, North Carolina, on the 29th day of December, 1808, he was left fatherless at the age of four years. At the early age of ten years, and without ever having attended school, he was apprenticed to a tailor in his native city. During his apprenticeship he learned to read, and passed much of his time at night in reading the works of the best English authors within his reach. In 1826 he removed to Greenville, Tenn., taking his mother along with him, who was dependent upon him for support. Here he soon married, and was taught by his wife all the branches of a good English education, which he then lacked. In 1830, at the age of twenty-two, he was elected mayor of the city, and five years later he was sent to the State Legislature, and was afterward frequently re-elected. In 1843 he was elected to Congress, and served ten years, when he was elected Governor of his State, which office he held till 1857, when he was elected a Senator of the United States. In this capacity he was acting when the rebellion broke out. He was a defiant enemy of the spirit of secession from the first; and by President Lincoln was appointed Governor of Tennessee, with full military power to protect the State. His nomination for Vice-President on the ticket with Mr. Lincoln, and his accession to the office of President made vacant by the death of Mr. Lincoln, have been already noticed.

President Johnson found the Southern people prostrate at the feet of national authority, and his first care was to restore the States to their proper position in the Union, and to establish custom-houses, post-roads, and post offices, &c.

As the first step towards restoring the State Governments. he

appointed provisional governors in all the States where loyal governors were not in power, and directed them to call conventions of delegates fresh from the people, to revise the State Constitutions, and cause them to harmonize with the Constitution of the United States.

By direction of these governors, conventions were held in every State, all ordinances of secession were repealed, the war debts were repudiated, slavery was abolished forever, and State constitutions were formed conforming to the national authority.

All recognized the abolition of slavery, the repudiation of the rebel debt, and the amendment of the Constitution of the United States prohibiting slavery wherever the national authority extends.

This amendment to the Constitution required the assent of twenty-seven States, or two-thirds of the whole number of States now in the Union. The required number of States ratified it, and the abolition of slavery throughout the United States is now complete and eternal.

One of the duties devolving upon the Executive has been to bring to trial the persons guilty of murdering and otherwise cruelly treating the Union prisoners of war in the hands of the Southern authorities. The first one of these miscreants brought to trial was Henry Wirz, by birth a Swiss, but a captain in the rebel army, and from the spring of 1864 to the close of the war, the officer in charge of the rebel prison at Andersonville, Georgia. His trial came on before a military commission in the City of Washington, on the 21st of August, 1865, and was completed on Saturday, the 4th of November. Many hundreds of witnesses were examined, and the cruelties they testified to have no parallel in the history of civilized men. Suffice it for the limits of this volume to say, that the terrible charges in the indictment upon which Wirz was tried were most fully proved.

He was charged with maliciously starving, wounding, maiming, poisoning, worrying with ferocious dogs, and even killing with his own hands, the prisoners in his charge.

The court found him guilty of all these charges, and sentenced him to death by hanging. The President approved the sentence, and the wretch was hung in the yard of the Old Capitol prison, at Washington, on Friday, the 10th of November.

During the year 1865, President Johnson proceeded with the work of re-organizing the Southern States on the general plan decided upon by President Lincoln and his Cabinet, as it was then understood.

Worthy of record in this place was the attempt made in the months of July and August to connect Europe and America by tele-

graphic wires. On the 22d of July, the Great Eastern steamship, with the wire cable on board, sailed from the harbor of Valentia, on the coast of Ireland. She proceeded for eleven days with but very little interruption, paying out the cable as she passed along. On the eleventh day, Aug. 3, when 1,312 miles of the cable were laid, and the ship was within 607 miles of the American shore, the cable broke; and all efforts to recover it were unavailing.

On the 4th of December, 1865, Congress assembled; and Mr. Johnson delivered his first message. He recited all the steps he had taken to re-organize the Southern States, and advised that all the representatives from those States, then in waiting, should be admitted to their seats. But the mode of election at the South, and in many cases the men elected, not being satisfactory to a majority of Congress, a Joint Committee on Reconstruction was raised, to whom was referred the whole matter of arranging for the reconstruction of the South. Early in the session a wide difference of opinion was seen to exist between the President and a majority of Congress. In January, Congress passed the Civil Rights Bill, placing the blacks and whites of the South upon a perfect civil equality. The same month they passed a bill conferring the right of suffrage upon the negroes in the District of Columbia. In February, they passed a bill enlarging the powers of the Freedman's Bureau. The first two bills were vetoed by the President, but were passed over the veto. The latter bill was vetoed by the President, and, not being passed by the requisite two-thirds vote in the Senate, was defeated.

The rupture between the President and Congress was now complete. On the 22d of February, the President, in a public speech at the White House, denounced several of the leading Republican members of the Senate as no better than traitors, and replied with extreme severity to some of the speeches made against him in Congress. On the 2d of April, he issued a proclamation declaring the civil war at an end.

The passage by Congress, the veto by the President, and the passage over the veto, of the second Freedman's Bureau Bill, in July, still further excited the public mind, and increased the hostility between the President and Congress.

On the 6th day of July, the steamship Great Eastern again left Valentia in Ireland, with the Atlantic cable on board, and sailed directly for the American shore, laying the cable as she proceeded.

She reached Heart's Content, Newfoundland, on the morning of the 29th, with the cable in perfect order, and communication without interruption. Not a mishap had occurred on the voyage. The whole length of the cable was 1,866 miles, which was laid at the rate of 120 miles per day. The first message sent through it from Europe was: "A treaty of peace has been signed between Austria and Prussia." The Queen of England at once telegraphed President Johnson: "The Queen congratulates the President on the successful completion of an undertaking which she hopes may serve as an additional bond of union between the United States and England." To which the President replied, "The President of the United States acknowledges with profound gratification the receipt of her Majesty's despatch, and cordially reciprocates the hope that the cable which now unites the Eastern and Western hemispheres may serve to strengthen and perpetuate peace and amity between the Government of Great Britain and the Republic of the United States." Subsequently the old cable of 1865 was recovered, and lengthened out to the shore, and found equally as serviceable as the new cable.

The strife between the President and Congress was renewed when Congress assembled in December. On the 7th of January, 1867, Mr. Ashley of Ohio presented formal articles of impeachment against the President, charging him with usurpation of power, violation of law, and a corrupt use of the appointing, pardoning, and veto power. The House voted down the charges by yeas 56, nays 109. The 56 yeas were Republicans. The 109 nays were 68 Republicans, and 41 Democrats.

The Joint Reconstruction Committee of Congress reported several bills for the government of the Southern States, all of which were vetoed by the President, and passed over his veto. These acts, in effect, divided the States lately in rebellion into military districts, placing each district under the control of a military commander, and taking from the President all authority over them, except the appointment of the commanders. A bill was also passed taking from the President the power of appointing civil officers, or removing them, except with the advice of the Senate previously obtained. In fact, nothing was left undone that could be done by Congress to indicate that there was an utter want of confidence on their part in the executive department.

The State elections through the year appeared to turn in favor of the policy of the President. This was clearly the case in Connecticut, California, New York, Ohio, New Jersey, and Maryland.

The storm which had been long gathering could not longer be restrained. Secretary Stanton, the head of the War Department, was the representative of the Congressional sentiment in the Cabinet ; and the President desired to get rid of him. On the 5th of September, he requested him to resign. Mr. Stanton refused. On the 12th of the same month, Gen. Grant accepted the trust, and was requested to act as Secretary of War *ad interim* ; and Mr. Stanton, yielding, as he declared, to superior force, withdrew. On the 25th of November, Mr. Boutwell of Massachusetts reported from the Judiciary Committee a resolution, that President Johnson had been guilty of high crimes and misdemeanors, and asking permission to introduce articles of impeachment. This was defeated by a vote of 57 to 108. On the 14th of January, the Senate having passed a resolution disapproving the removal of Mr. Stanton, Gen. Grant at once retired from the office ; and Mr. Stanton resumed his duties. Again the President attempted to remove him, on the 21st of February, by appointing in his place Gen. Lorenzo Thomas ; and again Mr. Stanton refused to leave.

This last act of the President aroused the resentment of Congress ; and articles of impeachment were at once ordered to be prepared, and presented to the Senate. The vote on this order was 126 to 47. The following is the substance of the articles of impeachment agreed upon : —

Article I. That the President issued an order to remove Secretary Stanton with intent to violate the Tenure-of-Office Act.

Article II. That he, by letter, authorized Lorenzo Thomas to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, when there was no vacancy in that office, with intent to violate the same act.

Article III. That he so authorized Thomas to act as Secretary with intent to violate the Constitution of the United States.

Article IV. That he conspired with Lorenzo Thomas and others, by intimidations and threats, to hinder Mr. Stanton from holding his office as Secretary of War, violating the Constitution, and the Conspiracy Act of July 31, 1861, thus committing a high crime in office.

Article V. That he conspired with Lorenzo Thomas, and other persons unknown, to prevent the execution of the Tenure-of-Office Act, and, in pursuance of this conspiracy, attempted to prevent Mr. Stanton from holding his office of Secretary of War, thus committing a high misdemeanor in office.

Article VI. That he conspired with Lorenzo Thomas to seize by force the War Department, contrary to the Conspiracy Act, and with intent to violate the Tenure-of-Office Act, thus committing a high crime in office.

Article VII. That he conspired with Lorenzo Thomas to seize by force the War Department, with intent to violate the Tenure-of-Office Act, thus committing a high misdemeanor in office.

Article VIII. That he delivered to Lorenzo Thomas a letter of authority to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, with intent unlawfully to control the military appropriations, in violation of the Constitution and of the Tenure-of-Office Act, and so committed a high misdemeanor in office.

Article IX. That on Feb. 22 last he instructed Major-Gen. Emory that that part of the Appropriation Act of March 2, 1867, which provides that all orders of the President and War Department relating to military operations shall be issued through the General of the Army was unconstitutional, and tried to induce Emory to violate it, by receiving orders directly from the President, with the further intent to prevent the

execution of the Tenure-of-Office Act, and to prevent Mr. Stanton from holding the office of Secretary of War.

Article X. That he delivered inflammatory and scandalous harangues at various times, to bring contempt upon Congress. In this charge, Specification 1st, quotes a speech at Washington, Aug. 18, 1866, about a body "hanging on the verge of the Government."

Specification 2d. The Cleveland Speech of Sept. 3, 1866, "Your Congress that is trying to break up the Government," etc.

Specification 3d. The St. Louis Speech of Sept. 8, 1866, "If I have played the Judas, who has been my Christ that I have played the Judas with? Was it Thad. Stevens? Was it Wendell Phillips?" &c.

These speeches are charged as a high misdemeanor in office.

Article XI. That he declared in a public speech in Washington, Aug. 18, 1866, that the Thirty-ninth Congress was not a constitutional Congress of the United States, but a Congress of part of the States, thus denying the validity of their legislation, except so far as he chose to approve it; and, in pursuance of this declaration, attempted to prevent the execution of the Tenure-of-Office Act, by unlawfully contriving means of preventing Edwin M. Stanton from resuming the office of Secretary of War when the Senate had refused to concur in his suspension, and also attempted to prevent the execution of the Appropriation Act of March 2, 1867 (as in Article IX.), and also of the Act of March 2, 1867, "for the more efficient government of the rebel States," thus committing a high misdemeanor in office.

To prosecute these articles before the Senate, the House elected John A. Bingham of Ohio, George S. Boutwell of Massachusetts, James F. Wilson of Iowa, Benjamin F. Butler of Massachusetts, Thomas Williams of Pennsylvania, John A. Logan of Illinois, and Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania.

For the defence, the President selected Henry Stanberry of Ohio, Benjamin F. Curtis of Massachusetts, William M. Evarts of New York, William S. Groesbeck of Ohio, and Judge Nelson of Tennessee.

The trial was formally opened on Monday the thirtieth day of March, and closed on the 6th of May. Chief Justice Chase of the United States Supreme Court presided. It was conducted on both sides with transcendent ability. For various reasons the Senate did not reach a vote on either article until the 14th of May. They then took up the eleventh article first, and failed to pass it by the requisite two-thirds vote. The vote stood 35 ayes to 19 noes. Further proceedings were then postponed to Tuesday, May 26. On that day the Senate met as a Court of Impeachment, and voted on the second and third articles. The vote was in each case the same as on the eleventh article. The President being acquitted on all the articles voted upon, further voting was deemed unnecessary, and the court thereupon dissolved; on hearing which, Mr. Stanton at once vacated the War Office, and Gen. Thomas took formal possession. The President, however, immediately nominated Gen. John M. Schofield of Illinois, for the place, which nomination the Senate confirmed, and order was once more restored.

At the election which followed in November, General U. S. Grant received a large majority of the electoral votes for President, and Schuyler Colfax for Vice-President.





U. S. Grant

CHAPTER LVIII.

ADMINISTRATION OF ULYSSES S. GRANT.



ON the 4th of March, 1869, President Grant was inaugurated with imposing ceremonies, when he delivered the following INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES:

Your suffrages having elected me to the office of President of the United States, I have, in conformity with the Constitution of our country, taken the oath of office prescribed therein. I have taken this oath without mental reservation, and with the determination to do, to the best of my ability, all that it requires of me.

The responsibilities of the position I feel, but accept them without fear. The office has come to me unsought: I commence its duties untrammelled. I bring to it a conscientious desire and determination to fill it, to the best of my ability, to the satisfaction of the people. On all leading questions agitating the public mind I will always express my views to Congress, and urge them according to my judgment, and, when I think it advisable, will exercise the constitutional privilege of interposing a veto to defeat measures which I oppose. But all laws will be faithfully executed, whether they meet my approval or not.

I shall, on all subjects, have a policy to recommend, — none to enforce against the will of the people. Laws are to govern all alike, — those opposed to as well as those in favor of them. I know no method to secure the repeal of bad or obnoxious laws so effective as their stringent execution.

The country having just emerged from a great rebellion, many questions will come before it for settlement in the next four years, which preceding Administrations have never had to deal with. In meeting these, it is desirable that they should be approached calmly, without prejudice, hate, or sectional pride, remembering that the greatest good to the greatest number is the object to be attained. This requires security of person, property, and for religious and political opinion in every part of our common country, without regard to local prejudice. All laws to secure this end will receive my best efforts for their enforcement.

A great debt has been contracted in securing to us and our posterity the Union. The payment of this, principal and interest, as well as the return to a specie basis as soon as it can be accomplished without material detriment to the debtor class, or to the country at large, must be provided for. To protect the national honor, every dollar of the Government indebtedness should be paid in gold, unless otherwise expressly stipulated in the contract. Let it be understood that no repudiator of one farthing of our public debt will be trusted in public places, and it will go far toward strength-

ening a credit which ought to be the best in the world, and will ultimately enable us to replace the debt with bonds bearing less interest than we now pay. To this shall be added a faithful collection of the revenue, a strict accountability to the Treasury for every dollar collected, and the greatest practicable retrenchment in expenditures in every department of government.

When we compare the paying capacity of the country now, with ten States still in poverty from the effects of the war, but soon to emerge, I trust, into greater prosperity than ever before, with its paying capacity twenty-five years ago, and calculate what it probably will be twenty-five years hence, who can doubt the feasibility of paying every dollar then with more ease than we now pay for useless luxuries? Why, it looks as though Providence had bestowed upon us a strong box, the precious metals locked up in the sterile mountains of the far West, which we are now forging the key to unlock, to meet the very contingency that is now upon us.

Ultimately it may be necessary to increase the facilities to reach these riches, and it may be necessary also that the General Government should give its aid to secure this access. But that should only be when a dollar of obligation to pay secures precisely the same sort of dollar in use now, and not before.

While the question of specie payments is in abeyance, the prudent business man is careful about contracting debts payable in the distant future: the nation should follow the same rule. A prostrate commerce is to be rebuilt and all industries encouraged. The young men of the country — those who form this age and must be rulers twenty-five years hence — have a peculiar interest in maintaining the national honor. A moment's reflection upon what will be our commanding influence among the nations of the earth in their day, if they are only true to themselves, should inspire them with national pride. All divisions, geographical, political, and religious, can join in the common sentiment.

How the public debt is to be paid, or specie payment resumed, is not so important as that a plan should be adopted and acquiesced in. A united determination to do is worth more than divided counsels upon the method of doing. Legislation on this subject may not be necessary now, nor even advisable; but it will be when the civil law is more fully restored in all parts of the country, and trade resumes its wonted channels. It will be my endeavor to execute all laws in good faith, to collect all revenues assessed, and to have them properly disbursed. I will, to the best of my ability, appoint to office only those who will carry out this design.

In regard to foreign policy, I would deal with nations as equitable law requires individuals to deal with each other; and I would protect the law-abiding citizen, whether of native or of foreign birth, wherever his rights are jeopardized, or the flag of our country floats. I would respect the rights of all nations, demanding equal respect for our own. If others depart from this rule in their dealings with us, we may be compelled to follow their precedent.

The proper treatment of the original occupants of this land — the Indians — is one deserving of careful consideration. I will favor any course toward them which tends to their civilization, Christianization, and ultimate citizenship.

The question of suffrage is one which is likely to agitate the public so long as a portion of the citizens of the nation are excluded from its privileges in any State. It seems to me very desirable that this question should be settled now; and I entertain the hope, and express the desire, that it may be by the ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment of the Constitution.

In conclusion, I ask patient forbearance one toward another, throughout the land, and a determined effort on the part of every citizen to do his share toward cementing a happy union; and I ask the prayers of the nation to Almighty God in behalf of this happy consummation.

President Grant organized his cabinet as follows:—

Secretary of State, Elihu Washburne, of Illinois; Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander T. Stewart, of New York; Secretary of War, John A. Rawlins, of Illinois; Secretary of the Navy, Adolph E. Borie, of Pennsylvania; Secretary of the Interior, J. D. Cox, of Ohio; Postmaster-general, J. A. G. Cresswell, of Maryland; Attorney-general, C. R. Hoar, of Massachusetts.

Mr. Washburne was soon after sent to represent his country at the court of France, Mr. Stewart was disqualified by reason of being an importer of foreign goods, and Mr. Borie resigned. Their places were filled, respectively, by Hamilton Fish, of New York, George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, and G. M. Robeson, of New Jersey.

The great event of General Grant's administration, and one that is destined to rank in history with the important landmarks of human progress, is the completion of the Pacific Railroad. To realize the importance of this great work, it is necessary to consider that two-thirds of the entire area of our country lies between the Mississippi River and the Pacific Ocean; that this vast region, which is four times as large as the whole of Europe, omitting Russia, is practically inaccessible by the ordinary means of conveyance by river and land; and that within this territory is a world of natural mineral and agricultural wealth, compared with which all the possessions of all the kings of Europe are but as dust in the balance. The Pacific Railroad runs through the centre of this region, opening it up to settlement and civilization, and furnishing facilities for extending lateral branches into every part of it.

The idea of connecting the Atlantic States with the Pacific Ocean by a railroad is almost as old as the use of railroads, but it was never reduced to a practical fact till 1862. That year a charter was obtained from Congress, by a company of enterprising gentlemen, granting power to build such a road, and endowing it with lands and loans of money to an extent hitherto unknown in any similar enterprise. These are the government grants to this company:—

1st. THE RIGHTS OF WAY AND MATERIAL, which include all necessary public lands for track, stations, depots, timber, stone, &c.

On the plain portion of the road, extending from Omaha to the base of the Rocky Mountains, 517 miles, at the rate of \$16,000 per mile.

On the most difficult portion of the road, extending from the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains westwardly, 150 miles, at the rate of \$48,000 per mile.

On the remaining distance westwardly, at the rate of \$32,000 per mile.

2d. **THE GRANT OF MONEY.**—The Government grants its six-per-cent currency-interest thirty-year bonds to the following amounts:—

These bonds were issued only on the completion of each section of twenty miles of road, and upon the certificate of Commissioners appointed by the United States government, that the road was thoroughly built and adequately supplied with all the machinery, equipment and fixtures necessary to complete a first-class railroad. The interest on these bonds is paid by the U. S. Treasury, but is a charge against the company. By its charter, the company receives one-half the amount of its claims against the government for transporting its troops, freight, mails, &c., in money, and the remaining half is placed to its credit as a sinking-fund, to be applied to the payment of the interest and principal of these bonds.

3d. **THE GRANT OF LANDS.**—The government grants to the company every alternate section of land for twenty miles on each side of the road, making in all twenty sections, equal to 12,800 acres for each mile of the railroad.

4th. **THE LOAN GRANT.**—The government grants the company a right to issue its own First Mortgage Bonds, on its railroad and telegraph lines, to an amount equal to that of the bonds of the United States issued to the company. By special act of Congress [passed July 2, 1864], these First Mortgage Bonds are made a lien prior to all claims of the government, or to any claims whatsoever.

Accepting these princely grants, the company at once organized, and, fixing the eastern terminus of the road at Omaha, Nebraska, commenced operations. The first contract for construction was made in August, 1864; but it was not till January, 1866, that the first forty miles of the road were completed. From California eastward, and from Omaha westward, the road was pushed forward with a rapidity that astonished the world, until, on the 10th of May, 1869, the last connecting rail was laid, at a place called Promontory Point, in the territory of Utah, 1,086 miles west of the Missouri river, and 690 miles east of Sacramento City, California. The event was appropriately celebrated on the spot, and the click of the hammer on the last spike was transmitted by the electric telegraph to every important point throughout the country. This event, as described by a writer at Washington, is worthy of being preserved in history:—

“The announcement having been made at Washington, at

noon, that the driving of the spikes in the last rail would be communicated to all the telegraph offices in the country the instant the work was done, a large crowd gathered in the main office of the Western Union Telegraph company here, to receive the welcome news. The manager of the office here, placed a magnetic bell in a conspicuous place, where all present could witness the performance, and connected the same with the main lines, notifying the various offices throughout the country that he was ready. New Orleans, New York, and Boston instantly answered that they were ready. Soon afterward, at about 2.27 P.M., many of the offices in different parts of the country began to make all sorts of inquiries of the office at Omaha, from which point the circuit was to be started. That office replied:—

“To everybody: Keep quiet. When the last spike is driven at Promontory Point we will say, ‘Done.’ Don’t break the circuit, but watch for the signals of the blows of the hammer.”

After some little trouble in the Chicago office, and the closing of a circuit west of Buffalo, the instrument here was adjusted, and at 2.27 P.M., Promontory Point, 2,400 miles west of Washington, said to the people congregated in the various telegraph offices,—

“Almost ready. Hats off; prayer is being offered.”

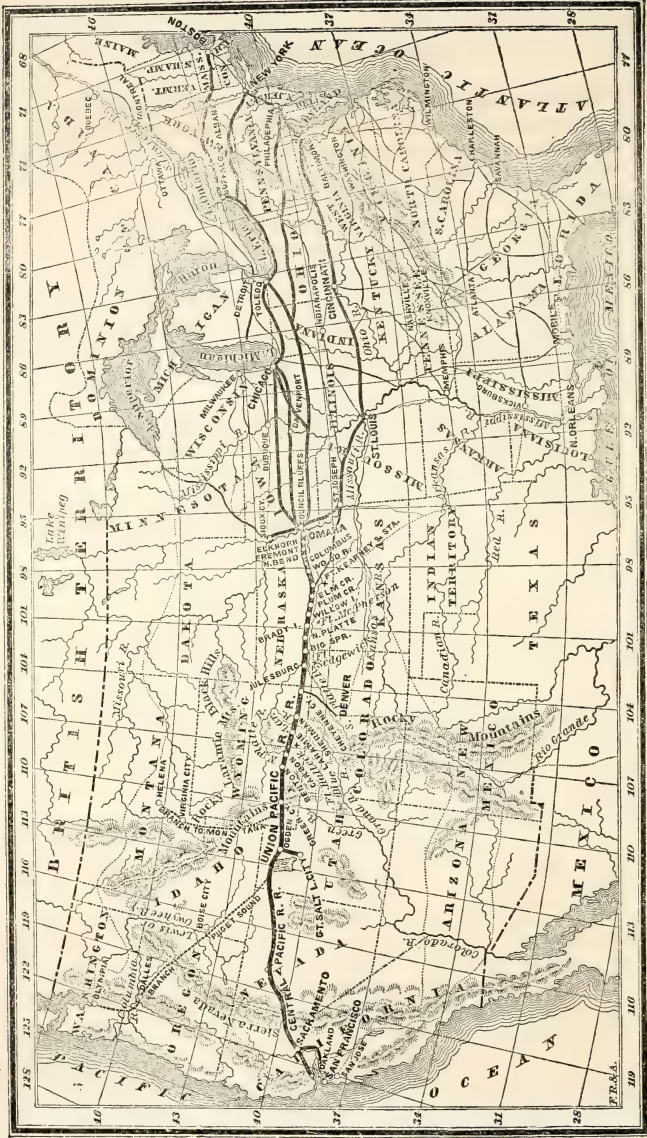
A silence for the prayer ensued. At 2.40 the bell tapped again, and the office at the Point said,—

“We have got done praying. The spike is about to be presented.”

Chicago replied: “We understand. All are ready in the East.”

Promontory Point: “All ready now, the spike will soon be driven. The signal will be three dots for the commencement of the blows.”

For a moment the instrument was silent, and then the hammer of the magnet tapped the bell, one, two, three—the signal. Another pause of a few seconds, and the lightning came flashing eastward, vibrating over 2,400 miles, between the junction of the two roads and Washington, and the blows of the hammer upon the spike were delivered instantly, in telegraphing accents, on the bell here. At 2.47 P.M. Promontory Point gave the signal, “DONE!”—the announcement that the continent was spanned with iron.



MAP OF THE UNION PACIFIC RAIL ROAD AND ITS CONNECTIONS.

The following table shows the distance from the eastern terminus of the road to the prominent points along the line, with their elevation above the sea level:—

STATIONS.	DISTANCE FROM OMAHA.	ELEVATION ABOVE THE SEA.
Omaha,	— miles	967 feet
Fremont,	46 "	1,215 "
Columbus,	91 "	1,455 "
Kearney,	190 "	2,128 "
North Platte,	290 "	2,830 "
Julesburg,	377 "	3,557 "
Cheyenne,	517 "	6,062 "
Sherman, Summit of Black Hills,	550 "	8,262 "
Laramie,	576 "	7,134 "
Benton,	690 "	7,534 "
Green River,	820 "	6,092 "
Fort Bridger,	845 "	7,009 "
Weber Canon,	995 "	4,654 "
Humboldt Wells,	1,213 "	5,650 "
Humboldt Lake,	1,493 "	4,047 "
Big Bend Truckee,	1,534 "	4,217 "
Truckee River,	1,602 "	5,866 "
Summit of Sierras,	1,616 "	7,042 "
Cisco,	1,624 "	5,711 "
Alta,	1,652 "	3,625 "
Colfax,	1,667 "	2,448 "
Sacramento,	1,721 "	56 "
Stockton,	1,766 "	22 "
San Francisco,	1,845 "	—

Omaha, the starting-point of the Pacific Railroad, on the Missouri River, is destined to be the great city of the Plains. Above it, the Missouri River is navigable two thousand miles, and it is the same distance from the great seaport of the Gulf States and the Mississippi Valley. From this point the Pacific Railroad runs in a nearly due westerly course, entirely across the State of Nebraska, a distance of five hundred and seventeen miles, to Cheyenne. The route lies along the valley of the Platte River, and is either an apparent dead level, or broken into rolling prairie-land, which is rapidly attracting settlement, on account of the dryness and purity of its atmosphere, and the great fertility of its soil. The exhilaration of animal spirits produced by the peculiar dryness of the atmosphere, will ever make this section of country attractive, especially to those seeking relief from the effects of the humid air of the ocean slopes, or the miasmatic influences of the river-bottoms of other Western States. Although the route from Omaha to Cheyenne appears level to the eye, it will be seen by the table that the elevation is gradual, till at Cheyenne it reaches an altitude of five thousand feet.

At this point a railroad will be finished, during the year 1870, into the great mining-regions of Colorado. Pursuing a nearly southern course to the city of Denver, a hundred miles distant, it will extend its branches and connections to every portion of Colorado, a State which embraces in its limits more of the grand and beautiful in scenery, and a greater variety of mineral and agricultural resources, than any other State in the Union. A recent traveller, speaking of Colorado, is enthusiastic over its resources and beauties, as follows :—

“We shall like Denver, spread out upon the rising plain, with the Platte River flowing through and around it, with broad streets and fine blocks of stores, and a panoramic mountain-view before it, such as rises before no other town in all the circle of modern travel. For a hundred miles, buttressed on the north by Long’s Peak, and on the south by Pike’s Peak, each over fourteen thousand feet high, its line of majestic rock and snow peaks stretches before the eye, ever a surprise by its variety, ever a beauty by its form and color, ever an inspiration in its grandeur. The Alps from Berne do not compare with the Rocky Mountains from Denver. In nearness, in variety, in clearness of atmosphere, in grand sweep of distance, in majestic uplifting of height, these are vastly the superior. Any man with a susceptibility to God’s presence in Nature must find it very easy to be good in Denver. Certainly, to watch these mountains through the changes of light and cloud of a summer’s day and evening is a joyful experience, worth coming from a long distance to Denver to share.

“The mining centres of Colorado are up among its mountains, twenty-five, fifty, and seventy-five miles from Denver, which is but the political and business capital; and thus facilities exist for travel into the regions whither we would go for knowledge and joy of Nature. Ten hours of staging take us through Central City, the chief gold-mining centre, at a height of seven thousand feet above the sea, with a population of several thousands, on to Georgetown, two thousand feet higher, the centre of the silver production, with nearly three thousand inhabitants. The way is full of mountain and valley scenery of freshest interest and majestic beauty. At Idaho and Fall River, little villages in the South Clear Creek Valley, on the route, are accommodations for summer visitors, with cold and warm soda springs at the former place, furnishing most luxurious bathing; and at Georgetown we are in the very centre of the highest and finest mountain-life in the State.

“Gray’s Peaks, the highest explored summits of Colorado (fourteen thousand three hundred, and fourteen thousand five hundred feet high), lie just beyond and above the town; and the excursion to and from their tops may easily be made in a day from Georgetown. Nothing in the Alps takes you so high. The rain-drops falling on one coat-sleeve flow off to the Pacific, on the other to the Atlantic. Fold on fold of snow-slashed and rock-ribbed mountains lie all around, for this is the fastness, the gathering and distributing point, of the grand continental range; while away to the east lies the gray-green sea of the Plains, and distributed among the snow-folds of the mountains are miniature copies of the same, which look like patches of prairie amid the continent of mountains; yet are, in fact, great Central Parks, from ten to thirty miles wide, and forty to seventy miles long,—North, Middle, South, and San Luis Parks. They lie along through the whole line of Central Colorado,—great elevated basins or plains, directly under the highest mountains. Some lie on the Atlantic side, others on the Pacific side; and their height above the sea-level ranges from seven thousand to ten thousand feet. In Europe or in New England this height in this latitude would be perpetual barrenness, more likely perpetual ice and snow; but here in Western America grains and vegetables are successfully cultivated, and cattle graze the year round, at seven thousand feet, while between that and ten thousand feet there is rich summer pasturage, and often great crops of natural grass are cured for hay.

“These great fertile areas among the high mountains of Colorado—this wedding of majestic hill and majestic plain, of summer and winter, of fecund life and barren rock—present abundant attractions for a full summer’s travel. For the lover of the grand and the novel in Nature, or the weary seeking rest from toil and excitement, our country offers nothing so richly recompensing as a summer among the parks and mountains of Colorado. The dryness of the climate, inviting to out-door life, is favorable to lung difficulties, though the very thin air of the higher regions must be avoided by those whose lungs are quite weak. Asthma and bronchitis flee before the breath of this dry, pure atmosphere, and it operates as an exhilarating nerve-tonic to all. Denver and St. Louis are about in the same latitude, and their thermometers have nearly the same range, though Denver is nearly six thousand feet higher. Its noons are probably warmer, as its nights are certainly cooler, the year round; but the drier and lighter air, ever in motion from

plain and mountain, makes its summer heats always tolerable. Denver is exposed to snow from October to May, but it rarely stays long; sleighing is as much of a novelty as at Washington or Philadelphia, and its winters are more like a dry, clear New England November, than any other season of the East. The valleys and parks of the mountains are similar in climatic character, with the added influences of three or four thousand feet greater elevation. The principal snows are in early spring, and the rains in late spring and early summer. Midwinter and midsummer are uniformly dry and clear. When clouds and storms do come, they are always brief. The sun soon shines through them to warm and clear the sky.

“The upper mountains of Colorado—at eleven thousand and twelve thousand feet—hold numerous pools and lakes, and not infrequent waterfalls. A party who made the ascent of Long’s Peak for the first time, last season, report nearly forty lakes in view at once; but the parks and lower ranges offer them but rarely.

“The tree-life of the Rocky Mountains is meagre; pines and firs and aspens (or cottonwood) make up its catalogue; nor are these so abundant or so rich in size or beauty as to challenge special attention. They grow in greatest luxuriance at elevations of from eight to eleven thousand feet; and the timber-line does not cease till nearly twelve thousand feet is reached. A silver-fir or spruce is the one charm among the trees. But the flora is more varied and more beautiful. Dr. Parry reports a hundred and forty-one different species in these higher mountains, eighty-four of which are peculiar to them.

From Cheyenne the railroad rapidly rises the mountain. In thirty-three miles it rises over two thousand feet, reaching the highest point of the Black Hills,—the highest elevation of the entire road.

From this point to the Territory of Utah, it is an uninhabited country, and a portion of the way a desert, wholly incapable of ever supporting man or beast.

The Territory of Utah is almost entirely peopled by the sect of Mormons, or Latter-Day Saints. The author of this Mormon imposture was Joseph Smith, who was born in Sharon, Vt., Dec. 23, 1805. In connection with others he concocted a “Mormon Bible,” so called, and set up for a prophet, about the year 1830. Strange to say, he soon found disciples, and removed with them to the town of Kirtland, Ohio. This place being found un-

suitable, the entire company again removed to Missouri, in 1838. They were soon driven from Missouri; and having now increased to the number of 15,000, they founded the city of Nauvoo, in Illinois. Here they flourished, and on the 6th of April, 1841, laid the corner-stone of a great temple, which cost, when completed, at least a million of dollars. At this place the new doctrine of a plurality of wives was introduced by one Elder Sidney Rigdon. The public abominations growing out of this doctrine soon brought the hand of the law upon the community. Smith and his brother Hiram were arrested, and while on trial in the town of Carthage, on the 27th of June, 1844, were confronted by a mob and killed. At this time there were 100,000 people in the Mormon city, believers in that faith. A recent English convert, by the name of Brigham Young, was at once acknowledged the leader of the sect. He sent out exploring parties into the wilderness to select a new habitation, for it was evident they could no longer stay in peace in Illinois. Finally, having made all arrangements, the Mormons, under their new leader, entered upon that remarkable pilgrimage which has had no parallel among men since Moses lead the Israelites out of Egypt. Their scouts had selected the borders of the Great Salt Lake, a place where they supposed they could be inaccessible to the rest of mankind for ages to come; and here, on the 24th of July, 1847, the "Saints" entered and took formal possession. And here, from that day to the present, this peculiar people have grown and flourished, and built a great city, and subdued to fertility a desert. From this place their emissaries have gone out to nearly every civilized nation of the earth, and brought in their converts to swell their ranks, and aid them in building up the Mormon power, until, if their figures are to be credited, they number 300,000 souls.

All this vast machinery of church and state seems to hang upon the life and will of one man, — Brigham Young; and it is probable that when he passes away, the accumulated vileness of his so-called religious system will pass away with him, like the "baseless fabric of a vision;" but his material works will remain, a monument to his great power as a leader of men, and to the continued exposure of the human mind — even in this age of Christian intelligence and culture — to the vilest and most debasing superstitions and delusions.

Of the capital of Utah Territory, — Salt Lake City, — the same traveller from whom we have quoted, says: —

"The town will delight us with its location, on a high plain over the broad Valley of the Jordan, Camp Douglas behind on a higher bench of land, the Wahsatch Mountains, with winter caps, hanging above it on the north and east, while opposite lower mountains make a western horizon, and Salt Lake, an inland ocean, ripples and shimmers under the noonday sun, fifteen miles away. Broad streets, with the irrigating brooks pouring down their gutters; good hotels; large and well-supplied stores; an abundant market; a large and well-appointed theatre, run in the name and for the benefit of the Church; gardens luxurious with fruit, the peach and the strawberry most abounding, and bountiful with vegetables; hot sulphur springs in the suburbs, inviting most luxurious baths; summer days, dry and pure, yet cool nights,—all these will seduce the senses and minister to our joy.

The streets of this city are so laid out as to have one acre and a quarter for each house. A square of ten acres in the centre of the city is left for the great Church edifice; and here is the foundation for the new cathedral, which is to rival the largest of the great cathedrals of Europe, if it does not surpass the largest of them.

The natural peculiarities of Great Salt Lake are a puzzle to scientific men. Five large streams of fresh water from the mountains pour into it perpetually an incalculable volume of water, and there is no visible outlet to it. Yet its waters are twenty-five per cent salt, and the increase in volume is but slight.

Between Utah and California the State of Nevada intervenes, rich in mineral and agricultural wealth. It is the great silver-producing State of the world. Its product of gold would be considered important in any place further removed from California.

But in this State, as in California and all the other Central and Pacific States, mining pursuits must be subordinated to agriculture. Mining is a precarious, dangerous, demoralizing business. Agriculture is the original, legitimate pursuit of man, and under the special patronage of God himself. Mining has performed for those great States the same office that the "Star of Bethlehem" performed centuries ago,—it has guided men to spots where all that is desirable and really worth the seeking, in a material sense, may be found, and opened up a new world for those, of all nations, who are seeking to improve their condition and that of their descendants.



WILLIAM PITT, SON OF THE EARL OF CHATHAM.

CANADA UNDER THE BRITISH.



THE history of Canada under the French has been given in a previous part of this work; and for an account of its conquest by the British, the reader is referred to Chapter XXV. The population at the time of the conquest was about seventy thousand, divided in a poor yet much respected nobility, and the cultivators—a race frugal, industrious, and moral. General Mur-

ray was appointed governor, and during his administration the rights of the old settlers were faithfully guaranteed to them. In fact, the British government, immediately after the conquest, exercised toward the Canadians a policy at once liberal and wise. The habitants, as they are now called, were secured in their property, invested with the rights of citizens, and allowed the free enjoyment of their religion. The laws of England, both civil and criminal, including trial by jury, were also introduced, and though the French still preferred, in many cases, the customs reconciled to them by habit, they did not fail to appreciate most of the improvements introduced by the new government.

At the time of the conquest, the British residents of Canada, exclusive of military men, were few and weak. Some five hundred traders, mostly of small capital, were scattered through the provinces. They seem to have been but ill-fitted for their station, often exhibiting a bigoted spirit, and an unjustifiable contempt of the French population. But owing to the firmness of the governor, the latter were protected by all the means at his disposal; and by this impartiality not only were many collisions between the two races avoided, but the old inhabitants became attached to the governor, and respected his government.

Little of historic interest occurred in the colony from this time until the revolt of the Thirteen colonies south of Canada. The importance of maintaining the Canadians in a state of loyalty was well understood by the mother country; and in order to gratify national partialities, Parliament, in 1774, passed the Quebec Act, by which the English civil law was superseded by the old French code, which had existed before the conquest. The only reservation was that of the criminal branch, which continued similar to that of England. The French language was to be used in the courts; but no provision was made for a national representation. It is probably owing to the latter cause, that this act, designed to effect a complete reconciliation between the two races, failed to accomplish that object. But during the struggle between Great Britain and her revolted colonies, the Canadians steadily maintained their allegiance. This was the more singular, from the fact that the American Congress and other republican bodies issued stirring appeals to the inhabitants, exhorting them to join against the common foe. Yet the British, as though confiding in the fidelity of the Canadians, withdrew almost all their troops from the province, in order to employ them in the south.

The Americans, failing in their attempts to enlist the Canadians in their cause, adopted the bold resolution of invading Canada with a view to its conquest. Of the daring manner in which the invasion was con-

ducted,—of the appalling sufferings, and heroic fortitude of officers and men, the fate of their leader, and the ultimate issue of the expedition, the reader will find an account in the twenty-eighth chapter of this volume.

From this time until the close of the American war, few events of sufficient importance to narrate occurred in Canada. In 1783, when peace was concluded, numbers of loyalists, obnoxious to the Americans, passed into Canada, where they received liberal grants of land, and by their sobriety and industry laid the foundation of the prosperity which subsequently distinguished the Upper Province. But the people were still anxious for a representative government. The Quebec Act had provided for the appointment of a legislative council of twenty-three members, but the nomination of these rested with the sovereign ; besides which, the administration, civil and military, was conducted by an individual exercising the powers of governor and commander-in-chief. Hence dissatisfaction rather increased than diminished ; and this was the case more especially, after the example of the United States' government had begun to operate. In 1784, a petition asking for a representative government, and signed mostly by British settlers, and by many of the French, was presented to Parliament. The petition received but little attention, until 1790, when Mr. Pitt proposed in Parliament a scheme of government for Canada, based upon that of the English constitution. The first change to be effected was the dividing of the province into Upper Canada and Lower Canada, of which each was to have a separate constitution. This division was strongly opposed by Fox and other Whig members, who based their hopes for the successful legislation of the colony, upon the reconciliation and ultimate amalgamation of the two classes of population. On the other hand, Pitt contended that the attempt at union, when race, language, and manners, were so different, would only produce dissension and disunion. He prevailed, and the measure became a law. Other differences arose in Parliament, concerning the constitution of the legislative council. Pitt proposed that it should consist of a hereditary nobility, among whom were to be included the more respectable French lords. Fox advocated a representative council, but as this was ill received, he suggested that the members be chosen by the king for life. The latter plan was adopted.

In 1792, the first house of Assembly, numbering fifty-two members, was opened by Lieutenant-governor Clark ; but their proceedings for some years were not of sufficient importance to merit notice. In 1798 troubles arose concerning the granting of land, the board appointed for that purpose having appropriated large districts to themselves. Loud complaints were made against this proceeding, as it tended to prevent

the general settlement of the province. Much time elapsed before this affair was adjusted. In 1803, slavery was abolished in Canada.

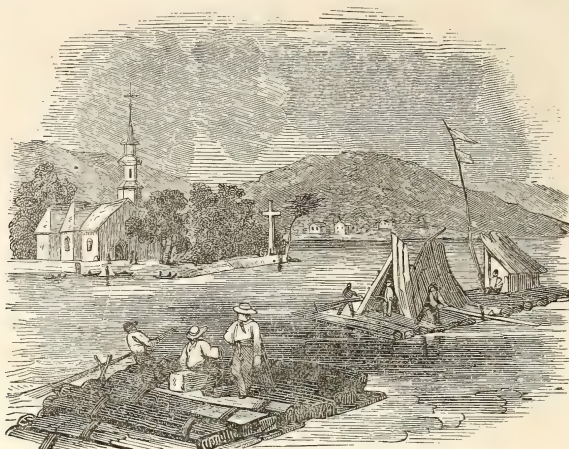
In 1807, Sir James Craig was appointed governor. His administration forms an era in Canadian history. Hitherto the affairs of the colony had been left almost entirely to the discretion of the executive; now the House of Assembly, as though suddenly conscious of its importance, appeared anxious to render itself independent. One of the first acts, with a view to attain this object, was to demand that the judges should be expelled from their body, as they were removable by the crown. Should it be done, the members offered to defray the expenses of the civil administration from the funds of the colony. The offer was angrily rejected, and the Assembly dissolved. A new Assembly, which convened in 1811, displayed the same independent spirit. A newspaper—the Canadian—defended the Assembly and attacked the government. The printer was sent to prison, and his stock destroyed. Several other individuals were seized; and a course pursued by the executive which has caused this period to be designated as the reign of terror. This period may be considered as the beginning of the dissensions which have since agitated the colony; but at the time, their progress was suspended by the war of 1812. The principal events of Canadian history connected with that war are elsewhere narrated.

At the close of that war, the former disturbances were renewed, and have continued to agitate the province with more or less violence to the present time. From 1815–23 successive governors were engaged in proposing measures of reform in the system of finance; but their efforts were not generally seconded by the Assembly. In 1824, under the administration of Lord Dalhousie, the House of Representatives condemned many of the former appropriations of the public money, and denied the right of the crown to interfere in that matter. These measures increased the prevailing discontent. In 1828, a petition, complaining of the governor's conduct, and urging compliance with the acts of Assembly, was sent to the king. It contained eighty-seven thousand signatures. A committee in the House of Commons reported favorably for the petitioners—a measure which gave great satisfaction—and important reforms were in consequence introduced. After the death of George IV., new disputes arose on the questions of making judges independent of the crown, and granting a permanent provision to the governor. The Assembly decided against the latter, a result which placed them at variance with the crown. Under Lord Goderich's administration, (1833,) the breach widened, in consequence of the Assembly demanding powers which that nobleman regarded as exorbitant.

When Sir Robert Peel assumed the direction of affairs in England, he determined on sending a commissioner to Canada, empowered to examine and redress every real grievance which might be found. The overthrow of the Peel ministry prevented the execution of this plan. Soon after, the Earl of Gosford was appointed governor. He seems to have been sincerely desirous of reform. His first intercourse with the Assembly and the popular leaders was amicable and conciliatory; but the somewhat harsh character of his instructions caused a violent tumult as soon as known, and produced an open rupture with the Assembly. The council strongly opposed the Representatives, so that no business of importance could be transacted. A meeting of the Provincial Parliament, in September, 1836, failed to effect a reconciliation. As no supplies could be obtained from the Assembly, the government was reduced to the alternative of suspending official operations, seizing supplies, or demanding the interposition of the mother country. Parliament promptly decided upon coercive measures, declaring, by large majorities, that the money withheld by the Assembly should be seized for administrative purposes, and that the executive council was not responsible to the Representatives for its acts. The death of William IV. prevented these measures from becoming laws.

Meantime, violent popular demonstrations had taken place. On hearing of the movements of the leaders, the governor requested a regiment of troops from New Brunswick, and warned the people about engaging in seditious movements. The Assembly denounced the measures of Parliament, and declared that, if carried into effect, the colony would no longer be attached to the mother country by feelings of duty or affection, but by force. The popular leaders resolved on an appeal to arms. Secret associations were formed, violent meetings held, and arms collected. Men calling themselves the "Sons of Liberty," paraded the streets of Montreal. Similar associations were formed at the village of the Two Mountains. Numbers refused to obey the magistrates; a popular militia was organized; and many openly declared a separation from the mother country to be necessary.

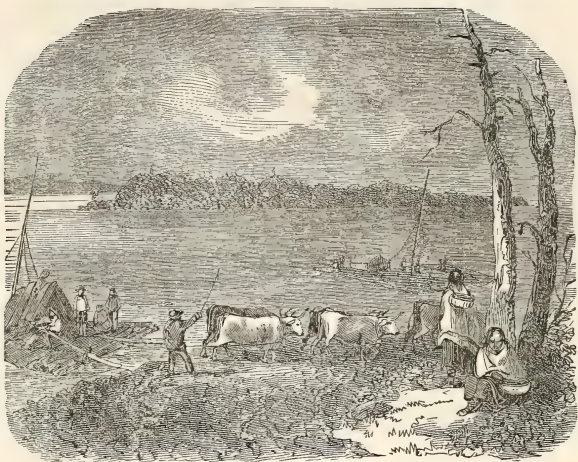
Meanwhile government was on the alert. Two more regiments were ordered from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Volunteer corps of the loyal inhabitants were formed; and various proclamations made to the societies and the people. In Montreal, a party of the "Sons of Liberty" were defeated and driven through the streets, and the office of a liberal paper destroyed. Warrants were issued against twenty-six of the popular leaders, and nine of them were arrested. Two of these were subsequently rescued near Longueuil by an armed force of three



LAKE OF THE TWO MOUNTAINS.

hundred men. The principal leaders, Papineau, Brown, and Wilson, were reported to have taken refuge in the villages of St. Denis and St. Charles. A considerable force, under Colonels Gore and Wetherall, was sent against them. On reaching St. Denis, Colonel Gore found the entrance defended by a stone house, from which a fire of musketry was opened upon him. His efforts to batter it down were unavailing; and after a sharp skirmish he retreated. Wetherall attacked St. Charles, defended by Brown, with fifteen hundred insurgents. The village was stormed, the palisades and fortified houses were set on fire, and the garrison driven off. The loss of the insurgents was about three hundred. The vindictive measures pursued towards this unfortunate garrison have cast a stigma upon Wetherall's memory. Soon after, Gore entered St. Denis without resistance; the popular leaders concealed themselves or fled to the United States, and the insurrection in this quarter was suppressed.

The districts of Terrebonne and Two Mountains, north of Montreal, were still in arms. In December, Sir John Colborne, commander-in-chief of the Canadian army, marched with thirteen hundred troops against St. Eustache. Four hundred insurgents threw themselves into a church, which they defended with desperate valour. They were finally dislodged by the building being set on fire. At St. Benoit, the loyalists



NAVY ISLAND.

burned the houses of the insurgents and committed other atrocities. Similar proceedings took place at Toronto, and the neighbouring provinces.

In Upper Canada, Mackenzie and other leaders endeavoured to erect that province into an independent nation. His attempt, on the 4th of December, to seize the government arms, failed. Three days after, his force of five hundred men was routed by a body of loyalists under McNab. Mackenzie fled to Buffalo, where he succeeded in organizing a corps which took possession of Navy Island. After fortifying it with thirteen pieces of cannon, he issued a proclamation inviting volunteers from Canada and the United States. About one thousand joined him, and he established a provisional government. It was at this period that President Van Buren issued his proclamation warning the citizens of this country of the consequences of joining the opposition to a friendly nation. The burning of the *Caroline* caused so much irritation upon the border, that the American government stationed there a small force under General Scott, to maintain order.

From this time until November, 1838, the spirit of rebellion slumbered. On the 3d of that month, a concerted rising took place in all the southern counties of Montreal district. Sharp skirmishing took place on the frontier, during which an insurgent force under Dr. Nelson lost one hundred men, and, in about one week, apparent tranquillity

was restored. At Prescott, four hundred men, after a gallant resistance were captured or dispersed by a large British force. A number of the leaders were put to death, and the remainder condemned to ignominious punishments.

Meantime, the news of the former insurrection had excited great sensation in England. When the House of Commons was about to rise for the Christmas holidays, a minister proposed that instead of postponing the time of meeting, as usual, until February, they should meet on the 16th of January. At that time the constitution of the lower province was suspended, and a bill passed for forming a council, its members to be named by the queen, which, in conjunction with the government, might exercise the functions then performed by the two legislative bodies. Its powers were to terminate on the 1st of November, 1840, and the validity of their enactments two years afterwards. The Earl of Durham, a mild and liberal statesman, was appointed governor-general of Canada, with instructions to carry these measures into immediate effect. On his arrival at Quebec, (May 29, 1838,) he was cordially received by all parties. In his progress through the country, as far as Upper Canada, he met with similar expressions of confidence.

This prospect of reconciliation was quickly clouded. Nelson, Bouchette, Viger and other popular leaders, were in the Montreal jail, charged with high treason. Government considered it necessary that they should be visited by exemplary punishment. Yet an impartial jury could not be expected for their trial, which would besides inflame all the rancour and party animosity which it was his lordship's object to appease. In this dilemma he adopted a course that would enable him, as he hoped, to avoid both evils. After the prisoners had been induced to make a confession of their guilt, they were sentenced to be sent to Bermuda, and there kept in strict surveillance. Should they at any time return to Canada without permission from the governor, they would be punishable by death. Papineau, and others who had escaped, received the same sentence. This measure produced much excitement in the British Parliament. Lord Brougham declared it illegal, as it condemned to death without trial, and to transportation to a colony which was not within the governor-general's jurisdiction. As the circumstances of the case were, however, extraordinary, he proposed a vote of indemnity, in favour of the governor-general. Lord Durham's measures were accordingly annulled. On receiving information of these acts, the governor-general, deeply mortified, publicly announced his intention to resign. He did not even follow the customary routine of requesting permission from the crown, and waiting until he had received it



TORONTO.

and in announcing the disallowance of his ordinance, he commented on the decision of Parliament with a severity which was considered irregular, as it tended to compromise the royal authority. On the 1st of November, two days before the last-mentioned insurrection, he sailed from Quebec, and on the 26th landed at Plymouth.

During the winter of 1838 and the ensuing summer, (1839,) the Canadian provinces were tolerably tranquil. Much interest was excited by the proposal for a union between Upper and Lower Canada—a measure warmly recommended by Lord Durham. A proposition to that effect was before the British ministry in 1839, and the House of Assembly in the upper province was favourably disposed toward it. But objections from other quarters caused its postponement for that year. A bill was passed to continue the extraordinary powers under which Sir John Colborne administered the affairs of the lower province; and in the fall, Poulett Thompson was nominated to the important office of governor-general. Under this gentleman and his immediate successor, government adopted a system of conciliation, directed, of course, to the retaining of Canada as a province of the mother country. Several prominent patriots were admitted into the executive and legislative councils, and even to the highest offices. Yet dissatisfaction, more or less general, still existed; and the populace lost no opportunity of appropriating the advantages of chance to their own purposes.

From this time until the year 1848, little of historical interest transpired in Canada. The country remained in an unsettled state, and in various quarters strong opposition was manifested from time to time, to the measures of the parent government. Some of the governors who succeeded Lord Durham rendered themselves odious by opposing popular acts passed or recommended by the Assembly. To these difficulties was added the antipathy between the two principal elements of the population. The descendants of the original French settlers of Canada and those of the British settlers cannot coalesce. Differences of religion, of manners, of ideas, of living, instead of disappearing, seem to increase yearly. The position of the governor is consequently a delicate one, frequently involving a sacrifice of the interest of one race to those of the other. This has been one principal cause of the failure of British legislation to produce legislative and social concord in the province. This fact became strikingly apparent in 1848, when dissatisfaction pervaded all Canada; and in the following year, when this dissatisfaction resulted in the serious riots at Montreal and other places.

Such was the popular feeling in the province, when, under the governorship of Lord Elgin, the Canadian leaders formed the "British American League," which has been rendered memorable by the unexpected events that occurred during its existence. Its objects were of a general nature—"to decide upon and publish (such was their language to the people) a declaration of their opinions, upon the commercial and political questions of the day." The means to be employed for this purpose were expressed in a single word—"organization." On the 19th of April, 1849, the League met at Montreal, to elect its officers, and frame an address to the people of Canada. In this paper, after mentioning the "commercial distress and general depression in every department of industry," and disclaiming all intention to propose remedial measures, the League enumerated several causes of the national difficulties. "The diversity of national origin, in itself so potent an impediment to progress; the system of representation; the tenure of lands in the lower province; the composition of the legislative council, and many other topics of far too great importance to be approached without caution or touched without dispassionate inquiry by the people at large—all point to the necessity of concentrating and asserting public opinion upon such matters." The address led to a warm discussion, during which the most liberal opinions on the subject of dissolving the connection with Great Britain were openly broached. Meanwhile, the people loudly complained of grievances, and one or two papers openly advocated secession from Great Britain and annexation to the United States. Exciting debates took

place in the Assembly. New names were added daily to the list of the League

This was the state of affairs when a rumor became general that Lord Elgin would sanction a measure known as the "Rebellion Losses Bill." It provided for indemnifying those who had sustained losses through the insurrections of the province—among whom, through a singular oversight of legislation, were several who had been outlawed by Lord Durham, for participating in the commotions for which indemnity was to be granted. The former loyalist party were greatly incensed. Mobs collected in various quarters, anxiously inquiring the news. On the afternoon of April 25, the governor repaired to the council-chamber, where he signed forty-eight bills. The "Rebellion Bill" was one of them. Reports of this proceeding spread so rapidly, that before Lord Elgin left the chamber, fifteen hundred persons had surrounded it. On entering his carriage, the governor was pelted with stones and other missiles. In one hour, all Montreal was in commotion. While alarm bells were ringing, men passed through the streets crying aloud that a popular meeting would take place that evening at the Champs de Mars. Five thousand people assembled. Resolutions of a most decided character were passed. One speaker mounted a chair, and with a loud voice announced "We have passed resolutions enough—they have been disregarded. The time for action has arrived." Deafening cheers interrupted him. "To the Parliament-house," shouted the orator. The words were echoed amid tremendous uproar, and with lighted torches dancing over their heads in every direction, the masses moved at a furious pace toward the legislative chamber. At ten o'clock eight thousand persons were in front of the legislative buildings. The Assembly was in full session, having their hall brilliantly lighted. A loud crash announced to the members their danger, and the glass panes were dashed in by thick showers of stones which poured through the windows. The terrified Assembly rose and rushed together into the lobby. The next moment, one hundred men, completely armed, entered the hall. One of them took possession of the speaker's chair, another carried away the mace. Others chopped to pieces the furniture. Some cried fire. The members, clerks, and ladies, led by Colonel Gully, collected in a body, and rushing through the hall, escaped at the principal door. The buildings were discovered to be on fire. In fifteen minutes the Assembly hall was in flames; by midnight the whole was one mass of ruins. Outside, an immense mob gazed upon the spectacle in stupid wonder. The troops had now arrived in considerable numbers. They were enthusiastic y cheered, but could do nothing to arrest the flames. All the

public records and documents, the recent bills, and the public library, were consumed with the buildings. The loss of the books, an immense collection, on the early history of the province, was irreparable. A picture of the Queen was destroyed in the streets. Before morning the mob had dispersed.

Next day, four of the popular leaders were arrested on a charge of arson. Three thousand persons followed them to the prison, and great excitement prevailed; but the "liberal" chiefs exerted themselves successfully to prevent an outbreak. Troops continued to arrive throughout the day, but seem to have made no efforts to prevent the assembling of large concourses of people. Several houses of obnoxious persons were attacked, and another meeting was called to deliberate upon the condition of the province. It voted a petition to the queen, demanding the immediate recall of Lord Elgin. The governor imprudently armed five hundred young Frenchmen, and placed them among his escort, thus augmenting the irritation of the "British party," as the more numerous portion of the people styled themselves. The escort, known as "Lord Elgin's guard," were hooted and threatened; and the governor burned in effigy. The popular leaders exerted themselves to arrest this dangerous tendency toward rioting; and by the 1st of May, order had been restored throughout the provinces. On the 10th, fresh disturbances occurred at Montreal. While the governor-general, with the ministry, and a large number of radical members, were at a dinner given at Titus's hotel, five hundred men surrounded the building, and demanded an entrance. A scuffle ensued, during which shots were fired from the hotel, and several of the people were wounded. The affair terminated, however, without any event more serious.



HE more recent history of Canada has been marked by political quiet and a rapid material advancement. There was a period, after the popular disturbances above narrated, when the idea of annexation to the United States was publicly discussed in certain quarters, and gained a number of advocates; but the sentiment was of but brief duration, and never, indeed, was extensively entertained. The judicious and conciliatory treatment of the Home Government was sufficient to restore perfect loyalty of feeling on the part of the colony. The two districts, Upper Canada (or Canada West) and Lower Canada (or Canada East), after remaining separate governments for some years, were again united; and, under a succession of able governors, and the liberal measures of reform and progress introduced, have gone on in a

career of prosperous development. The local legislature, or Provincial Parliament, is composed of a Legislative Council of forty-four members, selected by the crown, and retaining office for life, and a Legislative Assembly, consisting of one hundred and thirty members, who are chosen by the people. Its legislation must receive the sanction of the crown, before becoming of binding efficacy; and this authority is vested in the Governor-General, who may also reserve bills for reference to the Home Government. Of late years, the exclusive control of the Post-Office, the Revenue, and other leading matters, has been granted to the colonial government; and, generally, the province may be regarded as being, in every essential, an independent government, having its executive, legislative, and judicial departments modelled after the mother country, and managing its affairs in its own way. A very liberal franchise exists, so that the ballot box is nearly as free as in the United States. The executive consists of a governor-general, appointed by the crown, and a council appointed by the governor; the members of the latter being selected from the Legislature, directing the different departments, and, like the British ministry, holding office only so long as they are supported by a Parliamentary majority.

The advancement of Canada, in all that makes a prosperous and powerful state, has, as we have remarked, been rapid and extensive for the past few years. Its population has more than doubled since 1840, and has attained to nearly three millions. In agriculture, manufactures, and productive industry generally, decided progress has been made. Numerous canals, railroads, and other works of internal improvement, have been perfected, requiring the expenditure of large amounts of money. In 1859 there were over fifteen hundred miles of railroad completed in the province. Its commerce also has experienced a great increase, the exports running up from £2,669,998 in 1850, to a value of £5,950,325 in 1855, and yearly increasing since. A prominent cause of this commercial increase was the adoption of the Reciprocity Treaty between the United States and Great Britain, in 1854. By this treaty, the British colonies were permitted to enter upon a system of free trade, in many important articles, with the American States; and a mutual free interchange of productions has led to a largely extended commerce, resulting in marked benefit to Canada. More land is yearly being brought under cultivation, its towns are advancing in prosperity, increased business is furnished for its railroads, and its tonnage shows a yearly growing importance. In addition to its ordinary shipping, important steam communications

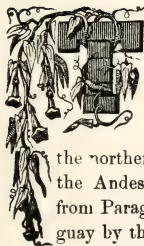
have been established, and powerful screw steamers connect its chief cities with Liverpool and other ports of Europe.

With this material growth, the progress in educational and religious matters has quite corresponded. In short, Canada, with its intelligent and enterprising population, its healthy climate, its developed prosperity, and its area of over three hundred and fifty thousand square miles, including boundless resources, is the most magnificent colonial possession of the British crown, and, in reality, an empire in itself.



SOUTH AMERICA.

THE ARGENTINE CONFEDERATION.



THE thirteen provinces of the Rio de la Plata, which constitute the Argentine Confederation, comprehend a large part of the surface of South America. The river Rio Negro has been fixed as their southern boundary; the mouth of this river is near latitude 41° S. The parallel of 22° S. lat. chiefly constitutes the northern boundary line. On the west, they are divided by the Andes from Chili and Bolivia, and on the east separated from Paraguay by the river Paraguay, and from Brazil and Uruguay by the river Uruguay. The area of the Confederation is estimated at seven hundred and eighty-six thousand square miles, and the population at something less than one million.

Though Amerigo Vespucci sailed along the coast before the end of the 15th century, it does not appear that he observed the wide estuary of the Rio de la Plata. It was discovered by Juan Diaz de Solis, who was sent to these parts in 1512 by the Spanish government, and he took possession of it, but did not form a settlement.

Sebastian Cabot was sent from Spain, in 1530, to make discoveries in South America. He traversed the La Plata, and following the course of the Rio Paraná to its confluence with the Paraguay, sailed up the first-mentioned river, but being prevented from proceeding far by shoals and cataracts, he entered the Paraguay, which he ascended

to a point above the place where Asuncion is situated. He built also a small fort at the place where the Rio Tercero, or rather the Carcarañal joins the Paraná ($32^{\circ} 30' \text{ S. lat.}$) which he called Santo Spiritu, which however was destroyed by the Indians soon after his departure. The favorable account that he gave of the country called Paraguay, induced the Spaniards to send a considerable force to these parts under the Adelantado Don Pedro de Mendoza, in 1534, who built a fort near the spot on which the town of Buenos Ayres now stands; and he then sailed to Paraguay to found the town of Asuncion. The fort was soon destroyed by the Indians. The Spaniards concentrated their forces in Paraguay, and from thence they gradually began to establish their settlements over the country.

In 1573, Don Juan de Garay founded the town of Santa Fé. In the mean time other Spaniards, who for some time before had held undisturbed possession of Alto Peru, or the present republic of Bolivia, advanced southward, passed the Abra de Cortaderas, and founded Salta, Tucuman, and Cordova, about the same time that Garay built Santa Fé. The town of Buenos Ayres was founded by Garay in 1580. He built a fort sufficiently strong to repel the attacks of the Indians. All the countries thus conquered were joined to the viceroyalty of Peru, of which they formed a portion until 1777, when Buenos Ayres was divided from it, and constituted a separate viceroyalty.



IN 1805 the town of Buenos Ayres was taken by the British, but they were soon expelled. In 1807 the city was again unsuccessfully attacked by a British force under General Whitelocke, who on his return to England was tried by court-martial for incapacity, and cashiered. The inhabitants of the Argentine Confederation, like those of the other Spanish colonies, did not submit to the authority of Joseph Bonaparte, and in 1810 they organized an independent government in the name of king Ferdinand VII. The loyalty of the leading men who had assumed power was however from the first of a doubtful character. The form of government was frequently changed: Buenos Ayres, on the one hand endeavoring to secure its supremacy, while the other provinces sought to obtain a national government with equal rights for the several provinces. From 1813 to 1816 the Sovereign Assembly had the chief power, and its meetings were held at Tucuman, which was the seat of government. On the dissolution of this body in April, 1816, a General Congress was called, which, on July 9th, declared the independence of the "United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata." General Puyrerredon was

named "Supreme Director," an office which lasted till 1820. For the next four years the provinces remained in an isolated position, when another General Congress was called, which, after long discussions, promulgated in 1826 a constitution, the 7th article of which declared that "the Argentine nation adopts for its government the republican representative form, consolidated in a unity of representation." This, known as the Unitarian Constitution, lasted a very short time. The several provinces withheld their approval, civil war again raged, in 1827 the Congress was dissolved, and the provinces returned to their state of isolation. Meanwhile war had been declared between the republic and Brazil, and Buenos Ayres was blockaded by a Brazilian fleet from January, 1826, to October, 1828, when the blockade was put an end to by British intervention.

In January, 1831, the provinces of Buenos Ayres, Entre Rios, Corrientes, and Santa Fé entered into a federal compact, to which all the other provinces at subsequent periods became parties. The union was a voluntary alliance. No general constitution was promulgated, and the adhesion of the several members was left to be secured by the resources of the person who might obtain the direction of affairs. This Argentine Confederation, like the republic which it had succeeded, soon fell into a state of anarchy, and it was not till the election of General Rosas as Governor or captain-general, with almost absolute power, in 1835, that even temporary quiet was secured. By this arrangement the provincial government of Buenos Ayres was invested with extraordinary powers, and temporarily charged with the transaction of all matters appertaining to the common interests of the Confederation, and the carrying out of its business with foreign nations. Rosas had previously served as Governor and captain-general for Buenos Ayres for the usual term of three years, and had obtained unrivalled influence in that province, chiefly through his military prowess, as displayed against the Indians. His decision and energy secured for awhile internal peace, and the provinces began to recover from the effects of the long prevalent anarchy. But cruelty and despotism marked his sway at home, and his ambition, which constantly prompted him to endeavor to extend his power over the whole country watered by the Plata and the Paraná, led him into disputes with foreign powers: and these ultimately brought about his downfall. His commercial policy had for its object to secure to Buenos Ayres the monopoly of the trade of the Plata—his political policy to obtain a like territorial superiority. On the death of Francia, dictator of Paraguay, he refused to acknowledge the independence of that power, insisting that it

should join the Argentine Confederation, at the same time he refused to allow the navigation of the Paraná by vessels bound to Paraguay. Lopez, the new dictator of Paraguay, therefore entered into alliance with the Banda Oriental, now called Uruguay, with which Rosas was at war. These powers applied for assistance to Brazil. The war was prolonged until the whole country on both sides of the Plata and Paraná was in a state of confusion. On the earnest appeal of the merchants and others interested, Great Britain volunteered her mediation, but it was rejected by Rosas, who marched his troops within a few miles of Monte Video, which his fleet at the same time blockaded. The emperor of Brazil now interfered, and sent a special mission to request the interposition of the courts of London and Paris. The British and French governments, in February, 1845, decided on sending plenipotentiaries to the Plata, to offer their mediation, and to announce their intention to enforce a cessation of hostilities, if needful, by an armed intervention. The offer was rejected by Rosas, but readily accepted by his opponents. The united fleets of England and France at once commenced operations by seizing the fleet of Rosas, which was blockading Monte Video, and the island of Martin Garcia, which commands the entrances of the Paraná and the Uruguay. The harbor of Buenos Ayres was at the same time declared under blockade, and the combined fleet prepared to open the Paraná, and convoy as far as Corrientes any merchant vessels that might desire to ascend that river. Rosas on his part made hasty preparations to intercept the fleet by planting batteries with parks of heavy artillery at Point Obligado, and placing three strong chains across the river, supported by twenty-four vessels and ten fire-ships. On the 19th of November, 1845, the combined fleet, consisting of eight sailing and three steam vessels, forced the passage with trifling loss to itself, but entirely destroying the batteries and considerably injuring the army of Rosas. On the return of the fleet, with a convoy of one hundred and ten vessels, it was encountered at San Lorenzo by a very powerful battery, which Rosas had erected in an admirable position, in the full expectation of destroying a large number of the merchant vessels, and of crippling the naval force. The battery commanded the river, and was difficult of attack by the steamers, but it was speedily silenced by a rocket-brigade, which had been the previous night secretly landed on a small island in the river. The combined fleet escaped with trifling loss. The loss to the Argentine army was very great. Again plenipotentiaries were sent out by the combined powers, but Rosas refused to yield; and England withdrew from the blockade in July, 1848. It

was, however, continued by France until January, 1849. On the final withdrawal of the two great powers in 1850, Brazil determined on active interference. The power of Rosas, essentially despotic, and devoted to the maintenance of the supremacy of Buenos Ayres, had moreover become intolerable to the provinces, which desired a federal and equal union. Accordingly, toward the close of 1850, Brazil, Uruguay, and Paraguay entered into a treaty, to which Corrientes and Entre Rios, as represented by General Urquiza, became parties, by which they bound themselves to continue hostilities until they had effected the deposition of Rosas, "whose power and tyranny" they declared to be "incompatible with the peace and happiness of this part of the world." Early in the spring of 1851 a Brazilian fleet blockaded Buenos Ayres, and soon after an Argentine force, commanded by Urquiza, crossed the Uruguay. The struggle was now virtually terminated. General Oribe, who commanded the army of Rosas in Monte Video, made a show of resistance, but it was merely to gain time in order to complete his arrangements with Urquiza, and he soon after capitulated. His soldiers for the most part joined the army of Urquiza, who, at the head of a force amounting it is said to 70,000 men, crossed into Buenos Ayres. A general engagement was fought on the plains of Moron, February 2d, 1851, when the army of Rosas was entirely defeated. Rosas, who had commanded in person, succeeded in escaping from the field; and, in the dress of a peasant, he reached in safety the house of the British minister at Buenos Ayres. From thence, with his daughter, he proceeded on board H. M. S. steamer *Locust*, and on the 10th of February sailed in the *Conflicter* steamer for England.



UT the fall of the tyrant did not bring peace to the unhappy country. Urquiza, by the governors of the provinces assembled at San Nicolas, was invested with the chief power, and appointed Provisional Director of the Argentine Confederation. The Chamber of Representatives of Buenos Ayres, however, declared against him, and protested against the proceedings of the convention, on the ground of the superior privileges of Buenos Ayres being menaced. Urquiza dissolved the Chamber, and insurrection broke out. Civil war, with all its aggravated evils continued. February, 1853; Buenos Ayres was in a state of siege.

The condition of the country in the few years following has been one of comparative quiet. The province of Buenos Ayres, however, continued, as late as 1859, its independent position, and Urquiza, it

was rumored, was about engaging in another attempt for its subjugation.

BOLIVIA.

The republic of Bolivia was formerly called Upper Peru, and formed a portion of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. Being separated from the more populous parts of Buenos Ayres by the desert of Chaco and a very rugged and dreary mountain region, it had little in common with that state, and it consequently soon separated from it after the subversion of the Spanish authority. The republic declared itself independent on the 6th of August, 1824, and assumed the name of Bolivia in honor of General Bolivar, on August 11th, 1825.

The northern boundary of Bolivia is formed by the parallel 10° S. lat. from the river Purus on the west, to the peninsula formed by the confluence of the rivers Sararé and Mamore, thence called the Madeira, on the east. The most southern point is on the shores of the Pacific at the Bahia de Nuestra Señora, about 25° S. lat. The most eastern part is contiguous to the river Paraguay, where, after leaving Brazil, it forms for some space the boundary between Bolivia and Paraguay, and extends to $57^{\circ} 30'$ W. long. The most western portion of the republic borders on the Pacific at Punta del Norte, about $70^{\circ} 30'$ W. long. Bolivia is bounded on the west for about 250 miles by the Pacific Ocean; the remainder of its western and north-western frontier is formed by the republic of Peru. It borders on the north-east and east on the empire of Brazil, except the most south-eastern corner, where it joins Paraguay. To the south of it extends the republic of Buenos Ayres, and where it approaches the Pacific that of Chili. It contains an area of 473,298 square miles, and is divided into seven departments and two provinces, with a population of about a million and half. In 1825, when Buenos Ayres had renounced its claim on Upper Peru, and the representatives of the country determined to form an independent state, they adopted a constitution proposed by Bolivar, according to which the executive power was to be placed in the hands of a president chosen for life, and the legislative was to consist of three bodies, the senate, the tribunes, and the censors. At the same time Bolivar was chosen president. In the following year a successful revolution occurred, and Bolivar's constitution was superseded. Since then there have been numerous changes, sometimes merely of dictators, but at others in the forms of government. The years 1847, 1848, and 1849 were consumed in civil war; and the country has been

ever since in a more or less unsettled state. The legislative power is, however, still, at least nominally, vested in three bodies, the executive being in the hands of an elective president. J. M. Linares held the office of President in 1859.

BRAZIL.

The empire of Brazil embraces an area of 3,956,800 square miles, or considerably more than half of South America. It has an Atlantic sea-coast of about 3,700 miles, extending from 5° N. lat. to 32° 30' S. lat., and its greatest diameter, in lat. 8° 21' S. is 2,630 miles. It is divided into twenty-one provinces, and the population is estimated at about seven millions.

Brazil was discovered in the first year of the sixteenth century. The voyages of Columbus and Vasco de Gama, who first sailed across extensive seas, had taught navigators to adopt the practice of entering at once upon the open ocean. Accordingly Pedro Alvares de Cabral, who after the return of Vasco de Gama was sent by the king of Portugal with a large navy to the East Indies, directed his course from the Cape Verde Islands to the south-west, and was carried by the equatorial current so far to the west that he found himself very unexpectedly in sight of land in 10° S. lat. This country was Brazil, which he saw first on the 3d of May, 1500. He sailed along the coast as far as Porto Seguro (16° S. lat.), where he landed and took possession. He sent an account of his discovery to Lisbon, and continued his voyage to India. The king afterward sent Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, to examine the country, who took a rapid survey of nearly the whole of its shores, and upon his return published an account of it, with a map. To this publication this navigator is indebted for the honor of having given his Christian name to the new continent.



ESPUCCI, and others who were sent somewhat later, reported that the country was not cultivated, and did not offer any great commercial advantages, but that they had found extensive forests of Brazil-wood, of which they brought some cargoes to Portugal. This was not sufficient to induce the Portuguese to form a settlement, especially as they were then actively engaged in their conquests in the East Indies; but it was quite enough to induce mercantile speculators to send their vessels for the dye-wood. This trade continued for some years, and the merchants of other nations, especially the French, began to follow the

example of the Portuguese. The Portuguese government considered this as a violation of their rights as discoverers of the country, and they accordingly began to think of forming a permanent establishment. King John III., however, on calculating the expenses necessary for such an undertaking, thought it more advantageous to invest some of the richest noble families of Portugal with the property of extensive tracts of coast, for the purpose of colonizing them with Portuguese subjects. Accordingly, about ten or twelve Portuguese noblemen obtained the property each of about 100 leagues of coast, and 40 or 50 leagues inland. These proprietors were called *donotarios*. Most of them made great sacrifices, and underwent much fatigue and danger in forming settlements in Brazil. The towns of S. Vincent, Espirito Santo, Porto Seguro, and Pernambuco were founded by them between 1531 and 1545. But it soon became evident that the private fortune of these noblemen was not adequate to the establishment of such settlements in an uncultivated country, and in the neighborhood of warlike savage nations. The king therefore sent, in 1549, as governor, to Brazil, Thomé de Sousa, who founded the town of Bahia, in the bay of Todos os Santos, and established a regular colonial administration. The government gradually found means to acquire the property of the colonies then existing from the *donotarios*, either by purchase or by exchange.

Before the religious divisions in England began to people the coasts of North America, the Protestants of France made a similar attempt in Brazil. A colony of French Protestants was established in 1555, on an island in the bay of Rio Janeiro, by Nicolas Durand de Villegagnon, but it soon fell into anarchy. The Portuguese attacked it in 1565, and expelled the French, though not without encountering considerable resistance. On this occasion the town of Rio Janeiro was founded by the Portuguese.

On the death of King Sebastian, when Portugal was united to Spain (1580), the numerous enemies of the latter country began to annoy Brazil, among whom the English, under Thomas Cavendish, were the most active. They did not however form any settlement. The French made a second attempt in 1612 to settle on the island of Maranhão, where they founded the town of San Luiz de Maranhão, but in 1615 they were compelled to abandon it to the Portuguese. The Dutch were more formidable enemies to the Portuguese. Their East India Company had already taken from them many settlements in the Indian seas, and their West India Company was thus invited to similar attempts in America. In 1623 they sent a fleet to Brazil, which took

Bahia, then the capital of the country; but it was lost again in 1625. In 1629 the Dutch made another attempt, and possessed themselves of Pernambuco, from which the Portuguese were unable to dislodge them. They afterward extended their conquests till they held, in 1643, the province of Seregipe and the whole of Brazil north of the Rio Francesco, with the exception of Pará. A few years later, however, the settlers of Portuguese origin rose upon them and drove them out of province after province, till at last the Dutch were confined to the town of Pernambuco, from which also they were expelled in 1654. By the peace of 1660 the Dutch renounced their claims on these countries.

At that time the mineral riches of Brazil were not known. The town of S. Paulo had been founded by some Portuguese in 1620, who had ascended to the table-land of the Paraná from the town of St. Vincent, and been induced to settle there on account of its fine climate. The adventurers established a kind of democratic government, and made frequent incursions among the savage nations for the purpose of capturing them and using them as slaves. In these excursions, toward the end of the 17th century, they discovered the mines of S. Paulo; and near Sabará, on the Rio des Velhas, in 1700, the richer mines at Villa Rica; and in 1713 those of Marianna. The mines at Cuyabá and Goyaz were discovered between 1715 and 1720. The existence of diamonds in the Rio Jequitinhonha was not known before 1728. These discoveries, and the riches which government derived from the mines, induced it to remove the administration of the colony from Bahia to Rio S. Janeiro in 1773.

The government of Brazil by the Portuguese was of the most exclusive character, and led to a constantly growing dissatisfaction on the part of the bulk of the inhabitants. Foreign vessels were not permitted to enter the ports of Brazil, nor the Brazilians to send their commodities to any other country than Portugal. This of course caused discontent among the merchants. Further, the natives of Portugal who had emigrated to the colony constituted a privileged class, being exclusively entitled to all posts of honor and all lucrative employments under government, which naturally excited dissatisfaction among the rich descendants of the Portuguese. This dissatisfaction began to generate a wish for change as soon as the United States of North America had obtained their independence; and events in Europe took such a turn that Brazil obtained its object almost without bloodshed or war. When Bonaparte had formed his scheme for taking possession of the Peninsula, he began by declaring war against Portugal,

upon which the royal family left Europe for Brazil, where they arrived 22d January, 1808. Considering Brazil as the principal part of his remaining dominions, King John VI. began to improve its condition by placing the administration on a more regular footing, and throwing open its ports to all nations. On the fall of Bonaparte, the king raised Brazil to the rank of a kingdom, and assumed the title of King of Portugal, Algarve, and Brazil. The royal family remained in Brazil until the king was obliged to return to Europe by the revolution which took place in Portugal in 1820, by which the constitution of Spain had been adopted in that kingdom also. The news of that event had hardly reached Brazil when the same constitution was proclaimed by the inhabitants in the town of Pernambuco, and soon afterward in Bahia and Pará. It was feared that similar measures would be taken in Rio Janeiro, and accordingly the king found it expedient to proclaim the constitution himself on the 26th February, 1821, soon after which he sailed for Lisbon, leaving at the head of the administration in Brazil, Pedro his eldest son and successor, as lieutenant and regent. The Cortes of Portugal did not conceal their design of restoring the old relations with Brazil, by which its commerce was restricted to the mother country; and they did not treat the deputies from Brazil quite as well as they should have done. This, of course, increased the discontent of the Brazilians, and prepared the way for the independence of that country.

The Cortes in Portugal continued their course of policy. They formed a scheme for a new organization of the administration in Brazil, and recalled the Prince Regent. But the prince, induced by the representations of the Brazilians, refused to obey their orders, and sent the Portuguese troops stationed at Pernambuco and Rio Janeiro to Europe. The Portuguese commandant of Bahia, however, did not yield; he expelled the militia and remained master of the town. This step was decisive, and immediately followed by others. On the 13th of May the Prince Regent was proclaimed protector and perpetual defender of Brazil. The General Procurators (*Procuradores geraes*) of the provinces were assembled by the Prince Regent to consult on the new form of government, but they declared that they were not competent to such a task, and proposed the convocation of deputies chosen by the people, to which the prince acceded after a short delay. As the Cortes in Portugal still persisted in their design, it was thought necessary to declare the independence of Brazil, and the Prince Regent did not venture to oppose the torrent of public opinion. Accordingly on the 12th of October, 1822, Brazil was declared an independent state,

and the prince adopted the title of Emperor of Brazil; on the 1st of December he was crowned.

As this step might be considered a declaration of war against Portugal, preparations for hostilities were immediately made. The Portuguese troops still occupied the towns of Bahia, Maranhão, and Pará. Bahia was besieged by the Brazilian forces, and after a few weeks the garrison was obliged to abandon it, upon the appearance of the admiral of Brazil, Lord Cochrane, before the harbor. The admiral also compelled the garrisons of Maranhão and Pará to sail for Europe. Thus the independence of Brazil was established, with no other loss of blood than what took place in the town of Bahia.

A General Assembly of deputies from the provinces was called to consider the draft of a constitution, but as they refused to frame one to which the emperor would agree, he dissolved them in November, 1823, and a few days after published a constitution, which, as already stated, was accepted and confirmed by the new General Assembly convoked in the early part of 1824. The independence of Brazil was acknowledged by Portugal in 1825.

In 1826 two events took place which gave rise to great discontent, the death of King John VI., and the war with Buenos Ayres, for the retention of Monte Video as a part of the Brazilian empire. By the decease of the king, Portugal devolved on the Emperor of Brazil, and the Brazilians again apprehended that they might be placed in a state of dependence on that country. To remove such fears Pedro declared his daughter Maria Queen of Portugal, intending to marry her to his brother Miguel. Peace was concluded with Buenos Ayres in 1828, and Monte Video became the independent republic of Uruguay. But the internal peace of the country was not re-established. Frequent disputes arose between the Chamber of Deputies and the emperor, and sometimes great disturbances occurred in Rio Janeiro. In the spring of 1831, one of these disputes assumed a form of more than common seriousness, in consequence of the emperor refusing to dismiss some unpopular ministers. On the 6th of April a tumultuous populace having assembled before the palace, the emperor ordered the military to disperse them. This they refused to do, and the emperor issued a proclamation by which he abdicated the throne in favor of his son, Pedro II., the present emperor.

At this time the young emperor was only in his sixth year. The Chamber of Deputies at once took a more decided lead in the government. They appointed a regency of three persons; and fixed the termination of the emperor's minority on his reaching the age of 18

years. Disturbances and revolutionary movements broke out successively in various parts of the empire during several following years. Most of them, however, were directed against the power of the Chamber of Deputies, which was regarded with general distrust. The regency was in 1831 limited to one person. In 1841 the desire for the termination of the regency, which had been long growing, found vent in a popular rising, which the government was unable to resist; and on the 23d of July, the young emperor, then only in his fifteenth year, was declared by the assembly to have attained his majority and to the full exercise of his constitutional prerogatives. Since that time there have been various outbreaks in different parts of the empire, some directed against the provincial governments, some with a view to erect one or other of the provinces into a republic, and some directed against the measures or the ministers of the imperial government; but on the whole Brazil has, during the last few years, had more internal tranquillity, and consequently been more prosperous, than any other of the states of South America. The most important of the foreign differences in which Brazil has been engaged was the long protracted war with Buenos Ayres, which led, in 1851, to the fall of Rosas, and eventually to the opening of the Rio Paraná.

The government of Brazil is a constitutional monarchy, with a responsible ministry, and a legislature consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The members of both are chosen by the provinces; the senators for life, and the deputies for a temporary period. The former consisted, in 1859, of 55 members, and the latter of 112. Brazil, next to the United States, is the most powerful and prosperous country of America.

CHILI.



THE republic of Chili is a narrow strip of country, lying on the Pacific shores of South America, between 25° and 42° S. lat. It contains an area of 249,952 square miles, and is divided into thirteen provinces, with a population of less than a million and a half.

This country was subjugated in 1450 by the Peruvians, who retained possession of it till they were driven out by the Spaniards, under Almagro, in 1535. The Spaniards were driven out by a general rising of the natives three years afterward. Pizarro attempted to colonize the country in 1540, and though opposed by the natives of Copiapo, he succeeded in conquering several

provinces, and founded the city of Santiago, February, 1541. In attempting to extend his conquest he exposed his settlement, for six years, to the strong and repeated attacks of the Mapochians, in whose district Santiago was. His lieutenant, Pedro de Valdivia, to whom this extension was entrusted, made the Promancians his allies, and, surmounting various attacks and oppositions from the natives, founded the cities of Concepcion, Imperial, and Valdivia. He was shortly afterward defeated by his old enemies, the Araucanians, who took him prisoner, and he was at length dispatched by an old chief with the blow of a club.

These Araucanians kept the new colonies for several years in a continual state of alarm and distress; and so far succeeded in avenging their former defeats, as in 1598 to capture Vallansa, Valdivia, Imperial, and other towns, and form the cities of Concepcion and Chillar. Nor were these the only losses sustained by the Spaniards. The Dutch plundered Chiloe, and massacred the garrison. The feuds between the Araucanians and Spaniards were settled by a treaty of peace in 1641, which lasted for fourteen years; then came a war of ten years, and another peace. In 1722 a conspiracy for the extirpation of the whites was happily frustrated. The colonists were gathered into towns, the country divided into provinces, and several new cities founded by the governor, Don Josef Manto, 1742. A similar attempt by Don Antonia Gonzaga, in respect of the Araucanians, relighted the torch of war, which blazed three years, when harmony was restored. Nor does any thing of particular moment occur in the history of Chili till 1809: then a successful revolutionary movement took place, and for four or five years fortune favored the cause of independence; but in 1814, a royalist party from Peru nearly extinguished the flame of liberty. Success (in 1817) returned with General San Martin, who brought them freedom. D. Bernado O'Higgins was made director of the junta; and a fatal blow was struck at the power of the royalists on the 5th of April, 1818, when a large tract of coast was declared in a state of blockade by the Chilian navy, under Lord Cochrane. In 1820, as stated in the history of Peru, the Chilian army, under San Martin, liberated Peru from the Spanish thralldom, and San Martin retired into the ranks of private life in Chili. His example was followed by O'Higgins, who resigned the dictatorship, January 28, 1823, and was succeeded by General Freire, the commander-in-chief. The royalist flag, which was hoisted in September, near the city of Concepcion, was pulled down after a short period, and a free constitution appointed, with a popular government.

Since the establishment of the constitution, which was proclaimed in 1830, there have been frequent conflicts between political parties, but the country has, on the whole, been more peaceable than most of the other South American states, and not less successful.

By the constitution the government received a republican form, with a central legislature and executive. The executive power is in the hands of a president, elected every five years; and a council of state, consisting of the ministry, two members of the court of justice, an ecclesiastical dignitary, a general, two ex-ministers, &c. The legislature consists of a Congress composed of a Senate of 20 members retaining their functions for nine years, and a House of Representatives elected triennially, to which a deputy is sent for every 20,000 of the population.

The President of Chili, in 1859, was Manuel Montt, against whose authority an unsuccessful attempt was made by the reactionary party in the early part of that year.

ECUADOR.



HIS republic lies between $1^{\circ} 40'$ N. lat. and $5^{\circ} 50'$ S. lat., and $70^{\circ} 20'$ and 80° W. long. It is bounded on the north by the republic of New Granada, east by Brazil, south by Peru, and west by the Pacific ocean. Its area is estimated at 287,638 square miles. It is divided into the departments of Ecuador, Guayaquil, and Assuay, and these again into a number of provinces. The population of Ecuador is about 700,000.

Ecuador was discovered by Pizarro in 1526; and came into the hands of the Spaniards at the downfall of the empire of the Incas. It remained a Spanish possession until 1812, when the inhabitants rose in insurrection and made a determined effort to throw off the Spanish yoke. Quito was then a part of the viceroyalty of New Granada, and it participated fully in the frequent vicissitudes of the war, which ended in 1823 with the complete expulsion of the Spaniards. By the convention of Cucuta, in 1821, New Granada and Venezuela united and formed one republic under the name of Colombia, but this union lasted only till 1831, when these countries again separated. Ecuador, or the ancient kingdom of Quito, was then also separated from New Granada, and since that time has existed as an independent state. Ecuador declared itself an independent republic, and established a constitution, according to which it is governed by a president elected for eight years, a vice-president, council of state, and a house of repre-

sentatives consisting of one member for every 40,000 inhabitants. The Roman Catholic is the established religion: the church is presided over by the Archbishop of Quito and the Bishop of Guayaquil. The presidency in 1859 was occupied by François Robles.

GUIANA.



HIS is the name applied to the north-eastern portion of South America extending from the banks of the Orinoco to those of the Amazon river. Guiana has an area of more than 650,000 square miles, of which a large portion is included within the boundaries of the empire of Brazil and the republic of

Venezuela: a territory of about 96,000 square miles constitutes British Guiana, about 60,000 square miles Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, and about 22,000 square miles Cayenne, or French Guiana; but the boundaries of the respective districts are, in some instances, not very clearly defined.

Guiana was discovered before the end of the 15th century by Vincent Pinzon. The Dutch formed the first settlement, about 1590, on the Demerara river, and afterward established themselves at other places. The English settled in 1634 in the neighborhood of the rivers Berbice and Surinam; but in 1667 the English settlements were given up to the Dutch. The French occupied Cayenne in 1663. During the last war with France the English occupied the Dutch settlements; and by the treaty of Paris, 1814, they restored only those between the Courantyne and the Marony to the Dutch, retaining possession of the remainder.

British Guiana consists of the districts of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. The seat of government is at Georgetown, Demerara. The governor is appointed by the crown, and legislative affairs are conducted by a Court of Policy and a College of Financial Representatives. The population is about 150,000.

Dutch Guiana is governed by an officer appointed by the crown and a council elected by the freeholders. The seat of government is at Paramaribo, on the Surinam river. The population of the colony is about 75,000.

French Guiana has a population of about 30,000. The government is conducted by a governor, privy council, and colonial council of 16 members chosen by the inhabitants. Cayenne is the capital of the colony.

NEW GRANADA.



HIS republic extends from south to north from the equator to $12^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat., and from east to west from 70° to $83'$ W. long. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean sea, south by Ecuador, east by Venezuela, and west by Costa Rica and the Pacific ocean. It contains an area of 521,948 square miles, divided into 35 provinces, with a population of about two and a half millions.

New Granada was discovered by Alonso de Ojeda in 1499. The first settlement was made at Santa Maria la Antigua, on the Gulf of Darien, in 1510. The interior of the country was only conquered toward the middle of the 16th century, by Benalcazar and Ximenes de Quesneda, who founded the town of Santa Fé de Bogotà in 1545. The Spaniards continued in possession of this country till 1811, when New Granada proclaimed its independence. The war which was the consequence of this declaration, continued to devastate the different provinces of which New Granada consists to the year 1821. In 1819 New Granada and Venezuela, being united into one republic, formed a constitution at the Congress of Rosario de Cucuta in 1821, and received into the union Ecuador and Panama in 1823. This union was dissolved in 1831, and the republic of Colombia divided into the three republics of Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador. Like the other republics of South America, New Granada has been ever since the declaration of independence in a very unsettled condition. In 1854 New Granada was in a state of revolution. The government troops were defeated; and Bogotà, the capital, was in possession of the Constitutionals.

The country has since been comparatively quiet and prosperous. The legislature consists of a Senate, with 39 members chosen by the provinces, and a Chamber of Deputies, with 65 members elected by the people. The presidential chair in 1859 was filled by Manuel O. Rodrigues.

PARAGUAY.



THE republic of Paraguay is situated nearly in the centre of South America, between the rivers Paraná and Paraguay, and embraces an area of 72,000 square miles. Brazil bounds it on the north and east, Corrientes on the south, and the Argentine Confederation on the west. Its population is about half a million.

After the Spaniards had discovered the wide embouchure of the Rio de la Plata, they sailed upward, and tried to establish a colony on the banks of the river. But two attempts of this kind failed. The settlements contained only a small number of settlers, who were soon destroyed by the warlike natives of the plains. In 1535, the Adelantado, Don Pedro de Mendoza, was sent with a considerable number of vessels to found a great colony. He sailed up the Paraná and Paraguay for nearly a thousand miles, until he came to Paraguay, where he founded the town of Assuncion. From this place the Spaniards, by degrees, spread over all the countries of South America south of 20° S. lat., and east of the Andes. In the 16th century the Jesuits were sent to those parts, for the purpose of converting the natives to Christianity. Their success was not great until they obtained from the Spanish court a mandate (about 1690) forbidding all other Spaniards to enter their *Missiones* without their permission. The Jesuits settled among the numerous tribe called the Guaranis, on both sides of the river Paraná, above the island of Apipé, and succeeded in bringing them to a certain degree of civilization. When the Jesuits were expelled, in 1767, the *Missiones* were inhabited by more than 100,000 civilized Indians, of whom, perhaps, less than half the number were in Paraguay. They afterward dispersed through different parts of La Plata, but it seems that the majority settled in Paraguay, which after that time was entirely subjected to the viceroy of Buenos Ayres. In 1810, when an independent government was constituted in Buenos Ayres, Paraguay refused to acknowledge its authority, and defeated General Belgrano, who had been sent to bring Paraguay to obedience. The country soon after declared its independence. After some changes in the government, Doctor Gaspar Rodriguez de Francia, a lawyer, was in 1814 elected dictator. In 1817 he became dictator for life; and he ruled the country with an

iron sway till his death in 1840. During his long and cruel despotism he adopted the policy of the Jesuits, absolutely prohibiting all intercourse with foreign countries, and placing the intercourse with the neighboring provinces under the most irksome restrictions. No person who entered the country was permitted again to leave it without special permission from Francia himself. He was succeeded by Lopez, who has been dictator since 1844, and has governed the country in a somewhat more liberal manner, establishing commercial intercourse with the neighboring provinces and with foreign nations. In consequence of wrongs inflicted upon citizens of the United States, and insults offered to the flag of that nation, Paraguay was visited by a powerful fleet of the North American confederacy, in the early part of 1859, and by timely concessions avoided a rupture with that power.

PATAGONIA AND THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.



THIS is a country in South America, comprehending the most southern portion of the continent from the Rio Negro to the Straits of Magalhaens or Magellan, by which it is divided from Terra del Fuego. The area is about 300,000 square miles, and the population, composed wholly of natives, numbers less than 150,000. It was discovered by the Spanish navigator Magalhaens in 1519. He named its inhabitants Patagonians, on account of the large size of their feet, such being the Spanish meaning of the term. He described them as being of a gigantic stature, seven or eight feet in height; but the statement was disbelieved even in his own day, and has since been disproved—though it is ascertained that they are really a people of more than the average physical development.

TERRA DEL FUEGO, or the land of fire, is the name of a group of islands, lying south of the Straits of Magellan, and forming the southern extremity of the continent. It was thus named by Magalhaens, in consequence of the numerous fires seen along its shores.

The Falkland Islands are a group lying about 300 miles east of the entrance to the Straits of Magellan. The chief islands are East and West Falkland, the former with an area of 3,000 square miles, and the latter of 2,000. Quite an interesting history is connected with these islands. They were discovered in 1592 by Dr. John Davis, who accompanied Cavendish in his second voyage; and Hawkins, who sailed along them in 1594, called them Hawkins's Maiden Land. In 1690

Strong sailed through the channel which separates East and West Falkland, and called it Falkland Sound, whence the islands were afterward named the Falkland Islands. Several vessels from St. Malo passed near the islands between 1706 and 1714, and from these they were named by the French *Les Iles Malouines*. In 1764 the French established a colony on one of the harbors of Berkeley Sound on East Falkland, and called it St. Louis; and two years later the British formed a settlement on West Falkland, on the inlet called Port Egmont. Soon afterward the French, in 1767, ceded their settlement to the Spaniards, who, in 1770, attacked the English colony and took it. After some negotiations Port Egmont was restored to the English. The British afterward abandoned the colony, but did not give up the rights of possession. The Spaniards also withdrew their garrison from Port Louis.

In the beginning of the present century the whale-fishery in the Southern Atlantic began to be prosecuted on an extensive scale by some European nations and the North Americans. Many of the whaling vessels visited the Falkland Islands, especially to kill wild cattle and refresh their crews. It was also discovered that the islands were visited by a great number of seals, and these animals attracted numerous other adventurers. This induced the government of the newly established republic of Buenos Ayres to take possession of East Falkland in 1820, and in 1823 they formed a settlement at Port Louis. England protested against these proceedings in 1829, and in 1833 the colony was given up to the English. For some years only a lieutenant of the navy with a boat's crew resided at Port Louis, but the British government resolved, in 1840, to colonize the islands, and to send there a governor and a small establishment. They settled at Port Louis; but on examining the country in its vicinity it was found that Port William, south of Berkeley Sound, offered greater advantages as a naval station and port of refuge, and in 1844 Governor Moody laid out a town on the southern shores of Stanley Harbor, a land-locked inlet, sheltered from every wind.

PERU.



HIS republic is situated between $3^{\circ} 30'$ and $21^{\circ} 28'$ S. lat., and $68^{\circ} 20'$ and $81^{\circ} 20'$ W. long., and is bounded on the north by Ecuador, east by Brazil, south by Bolivia, and west by the Pacific ocean. It is divided into eleven departments and two shore provinces, and contains an area of nearly 500,000 square miles.

When the Spaniards first visited Peru they found the country under a well-regulated government, and inhabited by a nation which had made great progress in the arts of civilization. The people were decently dressed, and lodged in comfortable houses. Their fields were well cultivated, and artificial cuts had been made to conduct the water of the small rivers to a considerable distance for the purposes of irrigation. They had extensive manufactures of earthenware and woollen and cotton cloth, and also tools made of copper. Even now the elegant forms of their utensils, made out of the hardest rock without the use of iron tools, excite admiration. The extensive ruins of palaces and buildings scattered over the country, and the remains of the great road which led from Quito to Cuzco, and thence south ward over the table-land of the valley of the Desaguadero, show that the nation was far advanced in civilization. This civilization appears to have grown up in the nation itself, and not to have been derived from communication with other civilized people. The navigation of the Peruvians was limited to coasting from one small harbor to another in balsas. The difference in political institutions and in the usages of society between the Peruvians and Mexicans precludes the supposition of either of these two nations having received their civilization from the other. Besides this, they were divided by savage tribes, which were sunk in the deepest barbarism. The Spaniards were surprised to find this state of things in Peru. When they had got possession of the country they inquired into its history, and learned the following traditions :

About three centuries before the arrival of the Spaniards, Manco Capac and Mama Ocollo appeared on the table-land of the Desaguadero. These two personages, male and female, of majestic stature, appeared clothed in garments, and declared that they were children of the sun, and sent by their parent to reclaim the human race from

its misery. The savage tribes submitted to the instruction of these beings of a divine origin, who taught them the first arts of civilization, agriculture, and the manufacture of clothing. Manco Capac organized a regular government, and formed his subjects into four different ranks or classes, which had some slight resemblance to the castes of the Hindoos. He also established many useful customs and laws, and founded the town of Cuzco, which soon became the capital of an extensive empire, called the empire of the Incas (or lords) of Peru. He and his successors being considered as the offspring of the divinity, exercised absolute and uncontrolled authority. His successors gradually extended their authority over the whole of the mountain region between the equator and 25° S. lat. When the Spaniards first entered Peru the 12th monarch from the founder of the state, named Huayna Capac, was said to be seated on the throne. He had violated the ancient usage of the Incas, which forbade a monarch to marry a woman not a descendant of Manco Capac and Mama Ocollo. His wife was a daughter of the vanquished king of Quito, and the son whom she had borne him, named Atahualpa, was appointed his successor in that kingdom. The rest of his dominions he left to Huascar, his eldest son by a princess of the Inca race. This led to a civil war between the two princes, and when the contest was at its height, a Spanish force entered the country under Francisco Pizarro in 1531.

Pizarro had sailed, in 1526, from Panamá to a country lying farther south, which, according to the information collected from the natives, abounded in precious metals. He sailed along the coast as far south as Cape Parina or Cape Aguja. Landing at Tumbez, in the Bay of Guayaquil, the most northern point of the present republic of Peru, he was struck with the advanced state of civilization of the inhabitants, and still more with the abundance of gold and silver vessels and utensils. From this time he resolved on the conquest of the country. In 1531 he returned with a small force which he had procured from Spain, marched along the coast, and in 1532 built the town of St. Michael de Piura, the oldest Spanish settlement in Peru. The distracted state of the country, caused by the civil war, enabled the Spaniards to take possession of it without a battle; and though the Peruvians afterward tried to renew the contest, they were easily defeated and compelled to submit to a foreign yoke. Pizarro built the towns of Piura, Truxillo, Lima, Arequipa, and Huamanga: Cuzco was founded by Manco Capac.

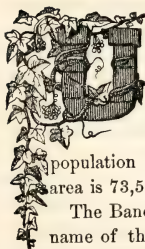
The disorders which immediately followed the conquest nearly caused the loss of the country, a circumstance which determined the

court of Spain to make Peru the chief seat of the Spanish dominions in South America. Lima was chosen for the capital, and it soon rose to such opulence that it was called the City of the Kings. The authority of Spain took deeper root in Peru than in any other of her South American Colonies. In 1780 the Peruvians took up arms against the Spaniards, under Tupac Amaro, an Inca, but failing to capture the town of La Paz after a long siege, they again submitted. When all the Spanish colonies began to rise against the mother country, after the year 1810, Peru remained quiet, and though some of the neighboring provinces had already expelled the Spanish armies, and others were attempting to do the same, the Spaniards remained in undisturbed possession of Peru until 1820, when General San Martin, after having expelled the Spaniards from Chili, entered Peru at the head of a victorious army, and soon obtained possession of Lima. The independence of Peru was declared on the 28th of July, 1821, and San Martin was proclaimed protector of Peru. The Spanish viceroy Canterac, who had remained in possession of the Montaña, gradually recovered the Valles. San Martin, having lost his popularity, resigned his authority into the hands of the legislature on the 19th of August, 1822. On the 1st of September, Bolivar, the Columbian general, entered Lima, and continued the war with Canterac, but at first with doubtful success. In February, 1824, Bolivar was made dictator; and in December of the same year the Spanish army, under Canterac, was entirely defeated by Sucre, on the plains of Ayacucho, by which battle the authority of Spain in Peru and South America was annihilated. In February, 1825, Bolivar had resigned the dictatorship, but he had previously contrived to separate the southern provinces from the northern, and to convert the former into a new republic, which adopted the name of Bolivia. Several different forms of government were tried within the six years following the declaration of independence. The constitution adopted by Bolivar in 1826 excited great discontent, and as Bolivar was soon afterward obliged to go to Columbia, where an insurrection had broken out and a civil war was on the point of commencing, a complete revolution took place in Peru, in January, 1827. The Bolivian constitution, or government, was abolished, and a new federal constitution, avowedly founded on that of the United States of North America, was framed and adopted, and may be considered as still in force. The national congress, or supreme legislature, consists of two bodies, a senate and a house of representatives. The president, in whose hands the executive power is placed, is chosen for four years, and he cannot be re-elected. The departments have their own legis

latures, and administer their own affairs, but the laws passed by these legislatures must be approved by the National Congress. The highest officers of the central government in the departments are the prefects and subprefects. These persons, as well as the judges, are elected by the congress from three candidates, who are proposed by the provincial governments. The Roman Catholic religion alone can be publicly exercised. But though this is still the nominal constitution, Peru has been, ever since its adoption, almost continually distracted by parties struggling for power, and by civil wars and revolutions produced by these continual struggles, while the government has really been in the hands of the chief of the successful party.

In 1855 General Echinique was driven from power by a revolution, and Ramon Castilla assumed the presidency, which he continued to hold as late as 1859.

URUGUAY.



URUGUAY, formerly called the Banda Oriental, comprehends the country lying between the southern limit of Brazil and the Rio de la Plata; it is bounded north by Brazil, east by the Atlantic Ocean, and south and west by the Argentine Confederation. There are nine departments in the State, and the population is estimated at less than 150,000. The territorial area is 73,538 square miles.

The Banda Oriental was, during the Spanish supremacy, the name of that portion of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres which was situated to the east of the river Uruguay, and comprehended the present republic of Uruguay and the country called the Seven Missions. The continual civil wars by which the declaration of independence was followed in Buenos Ayres, induced the government of Brazil to take possession of the Banda Oriental in 1815. The republic of Buenos Ayres protested against this step, and, as no amicable settlement could be made, a war ensued between the two countries in 1825. Through the intervention of the English government a treaty of peace was concluded in 1828, by which the northern district, known as the Seven Missions, was ceded to Brazil, and the more exclusive southern district was declared an independent republic, under the title of Republica del Uruguay Oriental. But instead of securing peace to the country its independence appears hitherto to have only entailed discord upon it. Internal hostilities broke out at a very early period, and these were soon followed by the incursion of troops from Buenos

Ayres; the assistance of Rosas, the president of Buenos Ayres, having been invoked by Aribé, one of the unsuccessful aspirants to the rulership of Uruguay. After a long continuance of strife, without any prospect of either party securing a manifest superiority, Brazil was induced, by the appeals of Paraguay and other neighboring powers, to interfere. In order to show her good faith, Brazil sent ministers to the courts of England and France, with a view to obtain their assistance either as umpires or active agents in compelling the respective parties to come to terms. Those powers accordingly sent some ships of war to the Rio de la Plata in 1845. The English ships blockaded Montevideo till 1848, and the French till 1849, when both England and France made treaties with Rosas. On these powers withdrawing, Brazil commenced more active hostilities—the Argentine provinces of Corrientes and Entre Rios uniting with her. The war was, however, prolonged till 1851, when Aribé was forced to capitulate in Uruguay, and Rosas was soon after deposed in Buenos Ayres. Treaties between the several parties gave peace to Uruguay as far as regarded hostilities with foreign powers, and secured the recognition of the republic by the neighboring states. But internal discord in this, as in so many other of the petty republics of South America, appears to have become chronic, and affairs have continued in a more or less unsettled state. The president of the republic, in 1859, was G. Antonio Pereira.

VENEZUELA.



THIS state extends over the north-eastern portion of South America, being situated between $1^{\circ} 10'$ and $12^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat., and 60° and 73° W. long. It is bounded north by the Caribbean sea, east by Brazil, Guiana, and the Atlantic ocean, south by Brazil, and west by New Granadá. It contains an area of 426,000 square miles, and is divided into fifteen provinces, embracing a population of about a million and a quarter.

The most eastern part of this coast, and the Island of Margarita, were discovered by Christopher Columbus in his third voyage, 1498, and the following year the whole northern coast of South America, from the Gulf of Paria to Cape de la Vela, in New Granada, was discovered by Ojeda and Vespucci. In the same year Christobal Guerra made a voyage for the purpose of ascertaining the commercial wealth of the country. The first settlements on the continent were at Cumaná, which was built in 1520, and at Coro, which

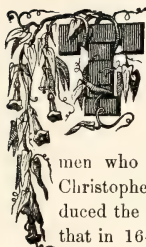
was built in 1527. About this time the emperor Charles V. gave up the whole northern coast as far west as Cape de la Vela to the Welser, a family of merchants in Augsburg, to be held as a fief of the crown of Castile; but he resumed possession of it in 1542. Several places in the coast range had already been discovered where there were indications of gold; and the Spaniards now began to form their settlements. Tucuyo was established in 1545, Barquicimento in 1552, Valencia in 1555, and Carácas in 1567. In 1634 the Dutch took possession of the island of Curaçao, and from that time Venezuela began to rise. The continually increasing demand for cacao on the part of the Dutch induced the Spanish settlers to attend to its cultivation, and in a short time a considerable quantity of cacao was exported. This excited the jealousy of the Spanish court and of the Spanish merchants. Various means were employed to direct this branch of commerce to Spain, but with little success. In 1700 the company of Guipuzcoa was established, in which was vested the exclusive right of carrying on the commerce with Venezuela; but the cultivation of cacao, as well as of indigo, was more promoted by the smuggling trade with the Dutch than by that of the company, and in 1778 the company dissolved, and the trade was open to all the ports of Spain. Venezuela remained under the sway of Spain till 1808, when Napoleon I., having deposed the royal family, made his brother Joseph king of Spain. Venezuela, like all the American colonies of Spain, declared for the ancient dynasty; but being dissatisfied with the measures of the regency of Spain, it proclaimed its independence in 1810, but in 1812 was brought back to its ancient political condition. In 1813 Bolivar, a native of Venezuela, made an unsuccessful attempt to liberate his native country from the yoke of Spain; in 1816 he was more successful. In that year a war began between the Spaniards and the inhabitants, which lasted till 1823, when the Spaniards who had remained in the country gave up Puerto Cabello, their last place of refuge. In 1821 Venezuela united with New Granada and Quito, and formed one republic under the name of Colombia; in 1830 they separated amicably, and since that time they have constituted the three republics of Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador. In the year in which the union was dissolved Venezuela formed a new constitution, which underwent some modifications in 1843. By it Venezuela has a central government, the legislature of which is invested with the power of making laws on all subjects. The legislative power is vested in a Congress, which consists of a house of representatives and of a senate. Each province sends two members to the senate, and one member to

the house of representatives for every 25,000 inhabitants. The executive power is vested in the president, who, like the vice-president, is chosen for four years. Like the other South American republics Venezuela has, since its independence, been in a continually disturbed state.

In 1857 and '58 a revolution took place, which drove President Monagas from power, who had governed the country in a corrupt and despotic manner, and elevated General Castro in his place. In the latter year also, by vote of the Congress of the nation, General Paez, a distinguished Venezuelan patriot, who had been living in exile many years in the United States, was recalled; he was conveyed to his native land in one of the vessels of the United States naval expedition bound to Paraguay.

THE WEST INDIES.

ANTIGUA.



THE island of Antigua, one of the leeward group, belongs to Great Britain. It contains an area of 168 square miles, and a population of about 40,000. It was discovered by Columbus in 1492, who gave it the name of Santa Maria de la Antigua; but it was found totally uninhabited by those few Frenchmen who fled thither in 1629, upon being driven from St Christopher by the Spaniards. The want of fresh water induced the fugitives to return as soon as they could. It appears that in 1640 there were about thirty English families settled in this island; and the number was not much increased when Charles II. granted the property to Lord Willoughby. In 1666 it was invaded by a French force, which laid waste all the settlements. A few years afterward Antigua was again settled by Colonel Codrington, who was appointed its governor. It was visited by an earthquake in 1843, by which most of the principal buildings were destroyed.

The executive government of Antigua is vested in a governor, who is also governor-in-chief over all the Leeward Islands. Its legislature consists of a council nominated by the crown, and a house of assembly chosen by the freeholders of the island.

To the north and west of Antigua lie the smaller islands of Anguilla, Barbuda, and St. Bartholomew. The two former are under British rule, and the last is a colonial possession, and the only one, of Sweden, in the West Indies. It was first settled by a French colony from St. Christopher, in 1648, and after passing into the hands of the English and French alternately, several times, was finally ceded to Sweden in 1785. It has an area of 25 square miles, and a population of 9,000.

BARBADOES.



BARBADOES is the most eastern of the Caribbee Islands, and the most ancient of the British possessions in these seas. It is fifteen miles long and ten broad, and contains an area of 166 square miles. Its population is about 150,000.

The Portuguese landed in Barbadoes about the year 1600, and left there a few plants and some swine. The island was taken possession of by the English in 1605; the first settlement was made by Sir William Courteen in 1624, and named by him James Town. After a dispute between two claimants for court favor, the Earls of Carlisle and Marlborough, the former was put in possession of the island by patent. A kind of island parliament was constituted, and Barbadoes so far flourished as to have a population of 50,000 by the year 1647. The Barbadians being for the most part Loyalists, the island was taken by the Parliamentary party in 1652. After the restoration much complexity arose out of the allegiance which the Barbadians owed to the king and to the Earl of Carlisle and his heirs; and in 1663 an arrangement was made whereby all claims of the earl and his heirs were commuted for an annual percentage on the revenues of the island.

In 1664 Barbadoes was attacked unsuccessfully by the Dutch Admiral De Ruyter. In 1668 a destructive fire laid nearly all Bridgetown in ashes. In 1669 Barbadoes was made the head-quarters of the Windward Islands. In 1675 the island was visited by an awful hurricane: neither tree nor house was left standing, except a few sheltered by some hill or cliff, and the whole face of the country exhibited one scene of desolation, while the coast was strewn with wrecks, and many lives were lost at sea and on shore. During the remainder of Charles II.'s reign an illiberal course of policy was pursued toward Barbadoes, greatly to the dissatisfaction of the colonists. On the accession of King William the Barbadians, in conjunction with Colonel Codrington, governor of the Leeward Islands, voluntarily undertook an expedition against the French in these seas, in which they greatly distinguished themselves in several remarkable exploits. The calamities of war were, in 1692, aggravated by the ravages of pestilence and an insurrection of the negroes; nevertheless the Barbadians sent a thousand men to assist in the attack upon Martinique in that year.

A long period of comparative quiet and prosperity ensued; but in 1756 the war which was kindled in Europe afforded the Barbadians an opportunity of showing their zeal and fidelity by furnishing 600 white volunteers, with negroes for laborious service, besides supplies to the fleet, under Commodore Moore, destined to attack Martinique, and to the forces besieging Guadaloupe. Mr. Hay, who assumed the government in 1773, was very anxious to improve the commerce of the island, and recommended that application should be made to obtain for it the privileges of a free port, but the opportunity was lost.

Barbadoes has been singularly afflicted by fires and hurricanes. Bridgetown, in the last century, was burnt down four times in ten years. A tremendous hurricane commenced on the 10th of October, 1780, and continued to rage with unparalleled violence for forty-eight hours, threatening universal ruin.

The governor of Barbadoes is also superior governor of all the Windward Islands. Hon. Francis Hincks held the office in 1859. The legislature consists of the governor, a council, and house of assembly. Barbadoes is the most thickly populated and among the most prosperous of the British West Indies.

CUBA.



CUBA, the largest and most westerly island in the West Indies, was discovered by Columbus, 1492; and was first called Juana, in honor of Prince John, son of Ferdinand and Isabella; afterward Fernandina; then Santiago and Ave Maria, in deference to the patron saint of Spain and the Virgin. The name of Cuba is that which it was called by the natives at the time of its discovery. It is about eight hundred miles in length, and about one hundred and twenty-five in breadth, containing an area of 47,000 square miles, and a population of more than a million. The Spaniards made no settlement upon it till 1511, when Diego de Velasquez arrived with four ships, and landed on the eastern point. This district was under the government of a cacique, named Hatney, a native of St. Domingo, who had retired hither to avoid the slavery to which his countrymen were condemned. Those who could escape the tyranny of the Spaniards had followed him in his retreat.

The Spaniards soon overcame the Indians. Hatney was taken prisoner, and condemned to be burned. Velasquez found no more enemies. All the caciques hastened to do him homage. After the mines had

been opened, and it was found that they did not answer, the inhabitants of Cuba, having become useless, were exterminated.

In 1762 the English took Havana, but it was restored to Spain by the peace of 1763, and the island has remained a Spanish colony ever since. For a long period Cuba has been notorious for the extent to which the traffic in slaves has been carried on in its several ports. The English government, after long continued efforts, at last succeeded, in 1853, in inducing the Spanish government to pledge itself to adopt measures for the suppression of the slave-trade in Cuba; but the traffic continues more or less active down to the present time. The importance of Cuba, as commanding the approaches to the Gulf of Mexico, has led to several attempts on the part of the United States to negotiate with Spain for its purchase; but the latter has seemed little willing to part with her rich and important colony. Attempts have been made at domestic revolution, with a view of establishing the independence of Cuba, but these have thus far proved unsuccessful.

CURAÇOA.



CURAÇOA was settled by the Spaniards early in the sixteenth century; it was taken in 1632 by the Dutch, and was captured by the English in 1798, but restored to Holland at the peace of Amiens. It was again taken by the English in 1806, and finally given up to Holland at the general peace in 1814.

It lies off the coast of Venezuela; is about thirty miles long and six broad, and contains a population of nearly 20,000.

In this connection we may embrace the mention of some other small islands in the West India group, owned by the Dutch: ST. EUSTATIUS, lying eleven miles north of St. Christopher, with an area of ninety-seven square miles, and a population of about 2,000. BONAIRE, twenty-seven miles north-east of Curaçoa; area eighty-three square miles, population about 2,500. ARUBA, fifty miles north-west of Curaçoa; area twenty-three square miles, population about 3,000. SABA, lying fifteen miles north of St. Eustatius; area sixteen square miles, population less than 2,000. The south part of ST. MARTIN, two square miles, and nearly 3,000 inhabitants.

DOMINICA.



DOMINICA was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and received its name in consequence of its being first seen on a Sunday. The right of occupancy was long claimed equally by England, Spain and France, but the island was virtually a kind of neutral ground until the year 1759, when its possession was assumed by the English, and their right to hold it was formally recognized in 1763 by the treaty of Paris. In 1778 Dominica was taken by a French squadron under the Marquis de Bouillé, but was restored to England at the peace in 1783. In 1805 the island was again attacked by the French fleet under Admiral Villeneuve, but was successfully defended by the garrison under Sir George Prevost.

This island lies between Martinique and Guadeloupe; is twenty-eight miles long, with an average breadth of ten miles, and contains a population of about 25,000. It has a lieutenant-governor, council, and assembly consisting of twenty members.

GUADELOUPE.



THIS island, a possession of France, was one of the discoveries of Columbus. It is of an irregular form, about twenty-seven miles long by fifteen wide, containing an area of 534 square miles, and a population of about 140,000.

The part of the island which gives its name to the whole colony is, toward the centre, full of craggy rocks. Among these rocks is a mountain called *La Soufrière*, or, the Brimstone Mountain, which rises to an immense height, and exhales, through various openings, a thick and black smoke, intermixed with sparks that are visible by night. From these hills flow numberless streams, which fertilize the plains below. Such is that part of the island properly called Guadeloupe, or Basse-terre. That part which is commonly called Grand-terre has been less favored by nature.

In 1635 the first settlement was made on this island, by two gentlemen from Dieppe, named Loline and Duplessis, with about five hundred followers. Through imprudence all their provisions were exhausted in two months; famine stared them in the face, when they

resolved to plunder the natives. This, however, did not avert the dreadful alternative. How far the accounts of their horrible sufferings are to be credited we know not, but it is asserted that the colonists were reduced to graze in the field and to dig up dead bodies for their subsistence. Many who had been slaves in Algiers deplored the fate that had broken their fetters; and all of them cursed their existence. It was in this manner that they atoned for their crime of invasion, till the government of Aubert brought about a peace with the natives, A. D. 1640. The few inhabitants that escaped the calamities they had brought upon themselves were soon joined by some discontented colonists from St. Christopher's, and by Europeans fond of novelty. But still the prosperity of Guadeloupe was impeded by obstacles arising from its situation. Martinique engrossed every species of traffic, from its convenient harbors and roads. It was in consequence of this preference that the population of Guadeloupe, in 1700, amounted only to about four thousand whites and seven thousand slaves, many of whom were Caribs; while the produce of the island was proportionably small. Its future progress was, however, as rapid as the first attempts had been slow.

At the end of 1755 the colony contained near ten thousand whites, and between forty and fifty thousand slaves; and such was the state of Guadeloupe when conquered by the English, in 1759, after a siege of three months, in which time the island suffered so much as to be nearly ruined. The conquerors, however, delivered the inhabitants from their fears; they overstocked the market, and thereby reduced the price of all European commodities. The colonists bought them at a low price, and, in consequence of this plenty, obtained long delays for payment. The colony was restored to France by the peace of Paris, in 1763. During the French republican war Guadeloupe was taken by the English, and retaken by the French, in whose hands it now remains.

Affairs are conducted by a governor, privy council, and colonial council, the latter consisting of thirty members chosen by the colonists. In this and the other French West India Islands slavery was abolished in 1848.

In the vicinity of Guadeloupe, and under its control, are the smaller islands of MARIE-GALANTE, twelve miles long by eight broad; DESEADA, eight miles by three; LES SAINTES, a group of rocky islets; and St. MARTIN, with an area of thirty-three square miles. The northern part of this last mentioned island is owned by the French, while the Dutch control the southern part.

GRENADA.



NE of the West India Islands, belonging to Great Britain, is about twenty-four miles long and ten broad. The French formed a project for settling there as early as the year 1638, yet they never carried it into execution till 1651. At their arrival they gave a few hatchets, some knives and a barrel of brandy, to the chief of the natives they found there; and, imagining they had purchased the island with these trifles, assumed the sovereignty, and soon acted as tyrants. The Caribs, unable to contend with them by open force, took the usual method which weakness inspires to repel oppression; they murdered all whom they found alone and defenceless. The troops that were sent to support the infant colony destroyed all the natives they found. The remainder of these miserable people took refuge upon a steep rock, preferring rather to throw themselves down alive from the top of it than to fall into the hands of an implacable enemy. The French called this rock *Le Morne des Sauteurs* (the Hill of the Leapers), which name it still retains. The French held this island till 1762, when it was captured by the British, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of 1763. The French, however, retook it in 1799, but restored it in 1783, agreeably to the treaty of peace.

Grenada has a population of about 30,000. Its government is like that of the other British islands, consisting of a lieutenant-governor, council, and house of assembly.

JAMAICA.



JAMAICA, the largest and most valuable of the British West India Islands, was discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, in 1494. It is about one hundred and sixty-five miles in length, from east to west, and its average breadth about forty miles, bearing a resemblance to a long oval. It contains an area of 3,250 square miles, and a population of about 400,000. In 1502 Columbus was driven upon the island by a storm, and, having lost his ships, he implored the humanity of the natives, who gave him all the assistance that natural pity suggests. They soon, however, grew tired of supporting strangers, and insensibly

withdrew from their neighborhood. The Spaniards, who had already treated the Indians ungenerously, now took up arms against one of their chiefs, whom they accused of severity toward them. Columbus, forced to yield to the threats of his people, in order to extricate himself from so perilous a situation, availed himself of one of those natural phenomena in which a man of genius may sometimes find a resource. From the knowledge he had acquired of astronomy he knew that an eclipse of the moon was fast approaching. He took advantage of this circumstance, and summoned all the caciques in the neighborhood to come and hear something that concerned them, and was essential to their preservation. He then stood up in the midst of them, and having upbraided them with their cruelty, in suffering him and his distressed companions almost to perish, he thus emphatically addressed them: "To punish you for this, the God whom I worship is going to strike you with his most terrible judgments. This very evening you will see the moon turn red, then grow dark, and withhold its light from you. This will be only a prelude to your calamities, if you obstinately persist in refusing to give us food." He had scarcely done speaking when his prophecies were fulfilled. The Indians were terrified beyond measure; they begged for mercy, and promised to do any thing that he should desire. He then told them that Heaven, moved with their repentance, was appeased, and that nature was going to resume her natural course. From that moment provisions were sent from all quarters; and the Spaniards were never in want of any thing during the time they remained there.

It was Don Diego Columbus, son of the discoverer, that first fixed the Spaniards in Jamaica. In 1509 he sent thither seventy robbers from St. Domingo, under the command of John de Esquimel, and others soon followed. These wretches went over apparently for no other purpose but to shed human blood; in fact, they never appear to have sheathed their swords while there was an inhabitant left. The murderers raised several settlements upon the ashes of the natives; but that of St. Jago de la Vega was the only one that could support itself. The inhabitants of that town contented themselves with living upon the produce of some few plantations, and the overplus they sold to the ships that passed by their coasts. The whole population of the colony, centered in the little spot that fed this race of destroyers, consisted of about fifteen hundred whites, and as many slaves, when the English came and attacked the town, took it, and settled there, in 1655. The English brought the fatal sources of discord along with them. At first the new colony was only inhabited by three thousand of that fanatical

army who had fought and conquered under the standards of the republican party. These were soon followed by a multitude of royalists. The divisions which had prevailed for so long a time, and with so much violence, between the two parties in Europe, followed them beyond the seas. One party triumphed in the protection of Cromwell; the other trusted to the governor of the island, who was, in secret, a royalist. The name of this governor was Dudley; and by his disinterested behavior he enforced his authority. When Charles II. was restored to the crown a form of civil government was established at Jamaica, modelled, like those of the other islands, upon that of the mother country.

Jamaica soon after became the grand depôt of the buccaneers, a set of pirates who plundered the seas, and ravaged the coasts of America. Here the spoils of Mexico and Peru met with a hearty reception; and here "extravagance and debauchery held their court" till this destructive race became extinct, or annihilated, in consequence of the frequency of the murders they committed. The illicit trade carried on between Jamaica and the Spanish colonies had, in 1739, according to the best calculations, brought into the former upward of £65,000,000 sterling. The court of Madrid thought to put a stop to it, by prohibiting the admission of foreign ships into the Spanish harbors on any pretence whatever. But the people of Jamaica supported themselves in this trade under the protection of the English men-of-war, by allowing the captain five per cent. upon every article of which he authorized the smuggling. After the establishing of register ships by Spain this trade gradually diminished; and some time previous to the year 1766 it was reduced to about £56,000 per annum. The British ministry at that time wishing to restore or recover the profit of it, thought that the best expedient to repair the losses of Jamaica was to make it a free port. This was no sooner done than the Spanish American ships flocked thither from all parts to exchange their gold and silver, and other commodities, for the manufactures of England.

St. Jago, or Spanish Town, is the capital, but Kingston by far exceeds it in size and opulence. The town of Port Royal stood on a point of land running far out into the sea, and ships of several hundred tons could come close up to the wharfs. When the earthquake happened on the 7th of June, 1692, this town contained two thousand houses, all of which were destroyed, and vast numbers of persons perished. The earthquake was followed by an epidemic disease, which carried off three thousand more. Port Royal was soon rebuilt; but in January, 1703, it experienced another great calamity, a fire nearly re-

aucing it to ashes. Many people now removed to Kingston. It was, however, built a third time, and was rising toward its former grandeur, when it was overwhelmed by the sea, on the 28th of August, 1722.

Jamaica remained a prosperous colony of Great Britain until 1833, when the abolition of slavery throughout the British West Indies operated to lessen the supply of labor, and produced a great deterioration in the value of the property and productions of the island. With the introduction of emigrant laborers, the condition of things has been improving of late years.

The executive is in the hands of a governor, who is styled Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief. The governor, as well as the council, is appointed by the sovereign of Great Britain. The council constitutes the Upper House. The Lower House, or the Assembly, is composed of members chosen by the freeholders. The governor in 1859 was the Hon. C. H. Darling.

THE CAYMANS, consisting of three principal islands, Grand Cayman, Little Cayman, and Caymanbrac, and embracing an area of 260 square miles, are situated south-west of Jamaica, and are dependencies of that government.

MARTINIQUE.



MARTINIQUE, the native name of which is said to have been Madiana, was discovered by the Spaniards in 1493; colonized by the French in 1635; taken by the English in 1762, and again in 1794 and 1810; and restored finally to France in 1814. Its original inhabitants were Caribs, of which race there are none left on the island. It is the most northern of the Windward Islands.

It contains an area of 322 square miles, and a population of about 125,000. The government is conducted by a governor, privy council, and colonial council. It is at present a flourishing colony of France. Martinique is distinguished as the birth-place of the Empress Josephine, and her first husband, the Viscount Beauharnois.

MONTSERRAT.

This island was discovered by the Spaniards in 1493, who gave it the name of a mountain in Catalonia, which it resembled in shape. It is about twelve miles in length, and five in its broadest part. The English landed here in 1632, and soon after drove off all the natives,

The progress of the colony was slow; and it acquired no kind of importance till the close of the seventeenth century, when the culture of sugar took place.

It has a population of about 8,000, and a government administered by a president, council, and house of assembly. It is under the control of Great Britain, and forms one of the Leeward group.

NEVIS.

This small island, now belonging to the British, was originally discovered by Columbus; and the English, under Sir Thomas Warner, settled on it in 1628. It is separated from St. Christopher by a narrow channel, and is properly only one very high mountain, about seven miles over each way. It was ravaged by the French in 1706, and the next year almost destroyed by the most violent hurricane ever recorded.

This island is governed by an administrative council and assembly, and contains an area of twenty-one square miles and a population of about 10,000.

PORTO RICO.



THIS island was discovered by Columbus in 1493; it is about one hundred miles in length, from east to west, and forty from north to south, with an area of 3,865 square miles. The Spaniards neglected it till 1509, when thirst of gold brought them thither from St. Domingo, under Ponce de Leon, to make a conquest, which afterward cost them dear. Ambition, revenge, and love of gold prompted the Spaniards to the most atrocious outrages. They found the inhabitants brave and fond of liberty; and as they looked up to the European visitants as a superior order of beings, to their authority they voluntarily submitted. It was not long, however, before they wished to shake off the intolerable yoke under which they groaned, and postponed the enterprise until they could assure themselves that they were not immortal. A cacique, named Broyo, was entrusted with this commission; and chance soon favored the design, by bringing to him Salzedo, a young Spaniard, who was travelling. Broyo received him with the greatest respect, and, at his departure, sent some Indians to attend him on his way, in quality of guides. When they came to the bank of the river, which they were to pass, one of them took him on his shoulders to carry him across; but no sooner had he got into the middle of the

stream than he threw the Spaniard into it, and with the assistance of his companions, he kept him there till no signs of life remained. They then dragged him to the bank, but, as they were still in doubt whether he was dead or living, they begged pardon many times for the accident that had happened. This farce lasted three days; till at length being convinced, by the putridity of the body, that it was possible for Spaniards to die, the Indians rose on all sides upon their oppressors, and massacred upward of one hundred of them.

Ponce de Leon immediately assembled all the Castilians who had escaped, and fell upon the Indians, who, as historians relate, had the extreme folly to suppose that these Spaniards were the same that had been killed and were come to life again to fight them. Under this ridiculous and almost incredible persuasion, dreading to continue a war with men who revived after death, they submitted again to the yoke of a cruel foe; and being condemned to the mines, six hundred thousand are said to have fallen martyrs to the sword or the toils of slavery.

Under the old colonial system of Spain, in 1788, the population was little more than eighty thousand. In 1856 it was estimated at half a million. Previously to 1815, Porto Rico being excluded from all direct intercourse with other countries excepting Spain, was but slowly progressive. At that period, however, a royal decree appeared, which exempted the trade between Spain and the Spanish colonies and Porto Rico from all duties for fifteen years; and she was then also permitted to carry on a free trade, under reasonable duties, with other countries. These wise and liberal measures contributed to the prosperity of the island. In the latter part of the seventeenth century Porto Rico was taken possession of by the English; but they did not long retain it, owing to the prevalence of disease among the troops. An attempt at revolution, with a view to separation from the mother country, was made in 1822, and suppressed the following year. The government, laws, and institutions are nearly similar to those established in the other transatlantic colonies of Spain.

THE BAHAMAS.



THE Bahamas, or Lucayos, are a chain of low islands stretching in a north-westerly direction from the north side of St. Domingo to the coast of Florida, between $20^{\circ} 55'$ and $27^{\circ} 40'$ N. lat., and $68^{\circ} 40'$ and $79^{\circ} 20'$ W. long. It is composed of innumerable rocks, islets (called keys), and islands, of which twenty are inhabited.

The chief of these are New Providence, Eleuthera, St. Salvador, Abaco, Crooked Island, and Grand Bahama. The area of the entire group is estimated at 5,422 square miles, and the population at about 28,000. The Bahamas are under British control, and are directed by a governor, council, and house of assembly.

St. Salvador was the first land fallen in with by Columbus on his first voyage in 1492. The Spaniards carried away to Mexico the few natives whom they found on the island, and the Bahamas remained uninhabited till the year 1629, when New Providence was settled by the English; the settlers held it till 1641, and were then expelled by the Spaniards, who destroyed the colony, but made no attempt to settle there themselves. It was again colonized by the English in 1666, and continued in their hands till 1703, when a combined force of French and Spaniards destroyed Nassau, and obliged the inhabitants to seek refuge by flight. Some, however, who remained were rendered desperate by their recent sufferings, and the place became a rendezvous for pirates, who became so notorious and committed such depredations in the adjacent seas, that government determined to suppress them, and resettle the colony. This took place in 1718, and shortly afterward settlements were formed on some of the other islands: Nassau itself (the town of New Providence) was fortified in 1740. In 1776 New Providence was taken possession of by the Americans, but they abandoned it very shortly afterward. In 1781 all the Bahamas were reduced by the Spaniards, but by the treaty of peace in 1783 they were again restored to the British crown. At the close of the American war many of the Royalists transferred the remains of their property, including in many cases their houses, to these islands, and since that period the number of the people and the cultivation of the land have progressively increased.

CAYCOS ISLANDS AND TURK ISLANDS were formerly included in the

Bahama group for purposes of government, but at the urgent request of the inhabitants they were, in 1848, formed into a presidency, under the control of the governor of Jamaica. They contain an area of 430 square miles, and a population of 5,000. Salt raking is the leading business of these islands.

TOBAGO.



TOBAGO was discovered by Columbus in 1496, and derives its name from the pipe (tobacco) used by the natives in smoking the herb "kohiba" (tobacco). At an early period the British flag was planted on the island, and James I. granted it to the Earl of Pembroke, but no attempt was made by the English to colonize it. In 1632 the Dutch formed a settlement and called the island New Walcheren, but the Spaniards from Trinidad attacked and destroyed the colony. Twenty years afterward the Dutch returned, and soon after a party of about one hundred Courlanders arrived, the Duke of Courland, godson of James I., having obtained a grant of the island. In 1763 it was ceded by France to England. In 1781 the French captured it. In 1793 General Cuyler, with 2,000 men, took the island; and it has ever since been a British possession.

Tobago is included in the government of the Windward Islands, and its affairs are administered by a lieutenant-governor, a legislative council of nine members, and a house of assembly of sixteen members. It is situated twenty-four miles north-east of Trinidad, and contains an area of 187 square miles, and a population of more than 13,000.

TRINIDAD.

Trinidad was discovered by Columbus in 1498, when it contained a numerous aboriginal population. It was first colonized, in 1588, by the Spaniards; in 1676 it was taken by the French, but almost immediately restored, and in 1797 it was taken by the British, in whose possession it has since remained.

It is the most southerly of the Windward Islands, and lies immediately off the coast of Venezuela, from which it is separated only by a narrow strait. This island is remarkable for its pitch lake, which is described as being a body of water, or rather of fluid pitch, of unknown depth, in a slow state of ebullition, and exhaling a strong bituminous and sulphurous odor. Trinidad is about ninety miles long

and fifty wide, with an area of 2,000 square miles, and a population of about 70,000. Its affairs are managed by a governor, assisted by executive and legislative committees.

ST. CHRISTOPHER.



THIS island lies west of Antigua, is seventeen miles long and six broad, containing an area of sixty-eight square miles and a population of about 25,000. It was discovered in 1493 by Columbus, who gave it the name it bears. It was the mother country of all the English and French settlements in the West Indies. Both nations arrived there on the same day in 1625; they shared the island between them; signed a perpetual neutrality; and entered into a mutual engagement to assist each other against their common enemy, the Spaniards. War commenced between England and France in 1666, and St. Christopher became a scene of carnage for nearly half a century, terminating only with the total expulsion of the French in 1702. The island is governed by a lieutenant-governor, and is represented by a deputation to the Antigua assembly.

ST. DOMINGO.

This island, which forms one of the Great Antilles, has been variously known as Hispaniola, or Little Spain, Hayti, and St. Domingo. It extends from the Mona Passage, which separates it from Puerto Rico, to the Windward Passage, which lies between it and Jamaica and Cuba, between $68^{\circ} 30'$ and $74^{\circ} 30'$ W. long., $17^{\circ} 40'$ and 20° N. lat. Its length is about 360 miles. Its area is about 29,500 square miles. The island is now divided between two states; the western portion forming the empire of Hayti, the eastern the republic of Dominica.

Hispaniola was discovered by Columbus on his first voyage (January 1493), at which time it received this name. The Spaniards formed settlements first at Isabella and then at San Domingo. For nearly half a century these settlements received much attention, and rose to great prosperity, until different parts of the American continent were discovered and conquered. From that time Hispaniola was neglected, and, as the natives had been nearly extirpated, the island soon became depopulated, and the northern and western districts were nearly a desert. The buccaneers now settled on the island of Tortuga,

opposite Cape François, and also on the coast. Perceiving that they would be driven away by the Spaniards, they voluntarily submitted to France, and Louis XIV. sent them a governor. In 1697 the Spaniards were obliged to give up the western districts, or about one-third of the island, to France. The French, who considered their portion of Hispaniola as the most valuable of all their foreign settlements, began to cultivate it with great care. In 1791 the agricultural produce of the French portion only was valued at more than £8,000,000 sterling. In 1794 the negro slaves were declared free by the National Convention, a declaration which was followed by a general insurrection of the negroes and mulattoes, who massacred a large number of the white inhabitants, and compelled the remainder to emigrate. One of their chiefs, Touissant l'Ouverture, established in 1801 a kind of republic, but was obliged to submit to a French army sent out by Bonaparte in 1802. After he had been treacherously taken prisoner and sent to France, the negroes rallied under Dessalines, and expelled the French in 1803. Dessalines restored to the island the name of Hayti, a name by which it was called by the natives when discovered by Columbus. In 1804 Dessalines followed the example of Bonaparte, and called himself emperor; in 1806 he was murdered. After his death the French portion of Hispaniola was divided into two states: the northern coast was formed into a negro republic under Christophe, who, in 1811, also took the title of emperor; the plains about the Bay of Gonaves became a mulatto republic under Petion. Continual war was carried on between these two republics. After the death of Petion (1813) he was succeeded as president of the republic by Boyer. Christophe having killed himself on the breaking out of an insurrection in 1820, Boyer united the whole under his authority. In the mean time the Spanish part of Hispaniola had been ceded to France in 1795, but was reoccupied by the Spaniards in 1808. The following year, however, it declared its independence of the Spanish government, and remained in an unsettled state until 1822, when it was subjected to the authority of Boyer, who thus united the whole island under his government. France recognized the independence of Hayti in 1825, the Haytian government undertaking to pay the sum of 150,000,000 francs (subsequently reduced to 90,000,000 francs) as an indemnity for the losses of the French colonists during the revolution. Boyer retained the presidency till 1844, when he was deposed. The following years were spent in a struggle for the supreme power, which was terminated by the election, in March, 1847, of General Faustin Soulouque as president. Although nominally republican, the government of

Hayti was really despotic, absolute power having been usurped by the president; and even the name of a republic was at length put an end to by Soulouque declaring himself, August, 1849, Emperor of Hayti. He was crowned as Faustin I. in April, 1850. His corrupt rule led to his overthrow in the early part of 1859, by a revolutionary party under the lead of Gen. Fabre Geffard, who restored the republic and was elected president. The population of Hayti is about 650,000.

Meanwhile, however, the eastern or Spanish part of the island had been formed into a separate state. Taking advantage of the weakness of the Haytian government, the inhabitants of Spanish Hispaniola, in February, 1844, declared themselves independent, under the title of the Dominican republic. Their leader, Gen. Santana, was elected the first president; and he was succeeded in 1849 by Gen. Baez. Santana having regained power, was once more deposed and driven from the country by a revolutionary party under Baez, who, in 1859, was president of the republic. Its population is about 150,000.

ST. LUCIA.



HIS island is about twenty-seven miles in length and fourteen miles in breadth. Its area is 225 square miles, and its population about 25,000. It is situated east of St. Vincent and south of Martinique. St. Lucia was discovered by Columbus. The English took possession of it in the beginning of the year 1639, without opposition. They lived there peaceably about a year and a half, when they were massacred by the natives. In 1650, about forty French arrived there under Rousset, who married one of the natives, and was beloved by them. He died four years after. Three of his successors were murdered by the discontented Caribs; and the colony was declining, when it was taken by the English in 1664, who evacuated it in 1666. They had scarce left it when the French appeared again on the island. Twenty years after the English drove out the French. The English again quitted it; and it at length remained wholly without culture. In 1718 Marshal d'Estrees obtained a grant of St. Lucia, and sent over a commandant, troops, and inhabitants. This gave umbrage to the court of London, which had a prior claim; therefore the French ministry ordered that things should be put into the same state as they were before the grant. In 1722 the Duke of Montague had a grant of St. Lucia from the British ministry. This gave uneasiness to France, and

it was at length agreed, in 1736, that neither nation should occupy it, but that both should "wood and water" there. However, the peace of 1763 gave to France this long-contested territory. During the American war, 1778, it was taken by the English. It was afterward given up to France; then again captured by the English in 1803, with whom it now remains, having been so definitely assigned by the treaty of Paris. A lieutenant-governor and legislative council administer the government of the island.

ST. VINCENT.



T. VINCENT forms one of the Windward group of islands, and is under British rule, having a local lieutenant-governor, council, and assembly. It is about eighteen miles long and eleven wide, with an area of 131 square miles and a population of nearly 30,000.

The island was one of the discoveries of Columbus, and nearly at the same time as the other islands in its neighborhood. For some time after its discovery it was the general rendezvous of the red Caribs, the original possessors of the western archipelago. In 1660, when the English and French agreed that Dominica and St. Vincent should be left to the Caribs as their property, some of these natives, who till then had been dispersed, retired into the former; but the greater part into the latter. This population was soon after increased by a race of Africans, whose origin was never positively ascertained. The natives treated them with kindness and mingled with them in marriage, whence sprung the race called black Caribs. In 1719 many inhabitants of Martinique removed to St. Vincent. In less than twenty years the population amounted to eight hundred whites and three thousand blacks. In this situation was the island when it fell into the hands of the English, to whom it was secured by the peace of 1763. In 1799 it was recaptured by the French; but it reverted to Great Britain in 1783.

The English had no sooner got possession than they issued an order to deprive the cultivators of the lands of their property, unless redeemed. The settlers remonstrated against a proceeding so unjust, but were disregarded; and the lands were ordered, by the English ministry, to be sold indiscriminately. This severity made them disperse. Some went to St. Martin, Marie Galante, Guadeloupe and Martinique; but the greater part to St. Lucia. The Caribs still occupied the windward side of the island, which contained fine plains; but having refused

to evacuate them when ordered so to do by the English, the latter took to arms to compel them. These unfortunate people defended themselves with extraordinary courage during several years, but were at length obliged to submit. The greater part were exterminated during the war, and the remainder either fled or were sent off the island.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.



THESE are an extensive group of small islands, lying between $18^{\circ} 5'$ and $18^{\circ} 50'$ N. lat., and $64^{\circ} 10'$ and $65^{\circ} 40'$ W. long., exclusive of the island of Santa Cruz, or Saint Croix, which properly does not belong to the group, but is commonly considered as forming part of it, because it belongs to Denmark, which also is in possession of some islands of the group itself. This island is about fifty miles S. from the centre of the Virgin Islands. The Virgin Islands extend in nearly a straight line from west-south-west to east-north-east, and occupy a space of about 100 miles in length, with an average width of twenty miles. The most western belong to Spain; the most eastern belong to the British; those in the centre to Denmark.

The British islands amount to about fifty in number; but most of them are very small. They are stated to cover a surface of between ninety-three and ninety-four square miles. The largest of these islands are: Anegada, Virgin Gorda, Comance, Beef Island, Guana, Tortola, Jost Van Dyke's, and Peter's Island. The population of the whole of these islands in 1850 was estimated at 7,000 persons.

Tortola, the most important of the British Virgin Islands, extends nearly twelve miles from east-north-east to west-south-west, but its width does not exceed two miles. Its area is said to be 13,300 acres.

The Danish islands consist of St. John, St. Thomas, and Santa Cruz. St. John has an area of twenty-four square miles; St. Thomas thirty square miles; and Santa Cruz 110 square miles. United population about 40,000.

The Spanish islands are a short distance from the eastern coast of Porto Rico, and consist of two, of moderate extent, and several islets. The northern island, called Calebra, or Passage Island, has an area of ten square miles.

Santa Cruz and the Virgin Islands were discovered by Columbus on his second voyage, 1494. They were then inhabited, and Santa Cruz was the most northern island in which the Caribbees had established

themselves; but toward the end of the sixteenth century no inhabitants were found on them. In the seventeenth century these islands became the resort of buccaneers; some Dutch buccaneers began to settle Tortola in 1648, but were expelled from the island by the English in 1666, and since that time the island has always been in their possession. The island of St. Thomas was settled by the Danes in 1672; and a few years later the Danes also possessed themselves of St. John. These islands were taken by the British in 1801, but were restored in the following year. They surrendered to the English in 1807, and continued in their hands till 1815, when they were again restored to the Danes. The British islands are under the authority of the governor of St. Kitts, but they have a separate legislative assembly. The Danish islands are under the care of the Danish governor residing at Christianstadt, the capital of Santa Cruz; and the Spanish islands are dependencies of Porto Rico.

APPENDIX.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Framed during the year 1787, by a convention of delegates, who met at Philadelphia, from the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECT. I.—All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

SECT. II.—1. The house of representatives shall be composed of members, chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative, who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to servitude for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative: and, until such enumeration shall be made, the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The house of representatives shall choose their speaker, and other officers and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECT. III.—1. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof for six years: and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments, until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

4. The vice-president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

6. The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath, or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECT. IV.—1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the congress may, at any time by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall, by law, appoint a different day.

SECT. V.—1. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house, on any question, shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journals.

4. Neither house, during the session of congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECT. VI.—1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any

speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person, holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuation in office.

SECT. VII.—1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary, (except on a question of adjournment,) shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him; or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECT. VIII.—The congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes.

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads.

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court.

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations.

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land or water.

12. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

13. To provide and maintain a navy.

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions.

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by congress

17. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district, (not exceeding ten miles square,) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings:—and

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or office thereof.

SECT. IX.—1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the congress, prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder, or ex-post facto law, shall be passed.

4. No capitation, or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census, or enumeration, herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels, bound to or from one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECT. X.—1. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports and exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States, and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of congress. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty on tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECT. I.—1. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2 Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may

direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the house of representatives shall immediately choose, by ballot, one of them for president: and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list, the said house shall, in like manner, choose the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the president, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors, shall be the vice-president. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the senate shall choose from them, by ballot, the vice-president.

4. The congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes: which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president, neither shall any person be eligible to that office, who shall not have attained the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice-president; and the congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice-president, declaring what officer shall then act as president, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

7. The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath, or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECT. II.—1. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint

ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECT. III.—He shall, from time to time, give to the congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECT. IV.—The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECT. I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECT. II.—1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trials shall be held in the state where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the congress may, by law, have directed.

SECT. III.—1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECT. I.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECT. II.—1. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

2. A person, charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having the jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person, held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law, or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECT. III.—1. New states may be admitted by the congress into this Union, but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as of the congress.

2. The congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory, or other property, belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to pre-judice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

SECT. IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union, a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive, (when the legislature cannot be convened,) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid, to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the congress: Provided, that no amendment, which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall, in any manner, affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrages in the senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

2. This constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath, or affirmation, to support this constitution; and no religious test shall ever be required, as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine states, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution, between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord, one thousand seven hundred and eighty seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America, the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

The Constitution, although formed in 1787, was not adopted until 1788, and did not commence its operations until 1789. The number of delegates chosen to this convention was sixty-five, of whom ten did not attend, and sixteen refused to sign the Constitution. The following thirty-nine signed the Constitution :—

New Hampshire.—John Langdon, Nicholas Gelman.

Massachusetts.—Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King.

Connecticut.—William Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman.

New York.—Alexander Hamilton.

New Jersey.—William Livingston, David Brearley, William Paterson, Jonathan Dayton.

Pennsylvania.—Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, Thomas Fitzsimmons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris.

Delaware.—George Read, Gunning Bedford, jr., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jacob Broom.

Maryland.—James M'Henry, Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer, Daniel Carroll.

Virginia.—John Blair, James Madison, jr.

North Carolina.—William Blount, Richard Dobbs Spaight, Hugh Williamson.

South Carolina.—John Rutledge, Charles C. Pinkney, Charles Pinkney, Pierce Butler.

Georgia.—William Few, Abraham Baldwin.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President*

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*.

AMENDMENTS

To the Constitution of the United States, ratified according to the Provisions of the Fifth Article of the foregoing Constitution.

ART. I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the rights of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ART. II.—A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ART. III.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ART. IV.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ART. V.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war, or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for

the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ART. VI.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ART. VII.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact, tried by jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. VIII.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ART. IX.—The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. X.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ART. XI.—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States, by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ART. XII.—The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot, for president and vice-president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name, in their ballots, the person voted for as president, and, in distinct ballots, the person voted for as vice-president; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice-president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such a majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But, in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death, or other constitutional disability of the president.

The person having the greatest number of votes as vice-president, shall be the vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then, from the two highest numbers on the lists, the senate shall choose the vice-president—a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

But no person, constitutionally ineligible to the office of president, shall be eligible to that of vice-president of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.—SEC. 1.—Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SEC. 2.—Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.—SEC. 1.—All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States, and of the state wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SEC. 2.—Representatives shall be apportioned among the several states according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each state, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for president and vice-president of the United States, representatives in congress, the executive and judicial officers of a state, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such state, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such state.

SEC. 3.—No person shall be a senator or representative in congress, or elector of president and vice-president, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States or under any state, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any state legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any state, to support the constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or giving aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

SEC. 4.—The validity of the public debt of the United States authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any state shall assume to pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SEC. 5.—The congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

JULY 4th, 1776.

The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States in Congress Assembled.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal: that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to

provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient suffering of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise—the state remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states—for that purpose obstructing the laws of naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws—giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation.

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the *forms* of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms. Our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts, by their legislature, to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed and signed by the following members:

Adams, John	Hancock, John	Lynch, Thomas, Jr.	Rutledge, Edward
Adams, Samuel	Harrison, Benjamin	M'Kean, Thomas	Sherman, Roger
Bartlett, Josiah	Hart, John	Middleton, Artur	Smith, James
Braxton, Carter	Heyward, Thos., Jr.	Morris, Lewis	Stockton, Richard
Carroll, Charles, of	Hewes, Joseph	Morris, Robert	Stone, Thomas
Carrollton	Hooper, William	Morton, John	Taylor, George
Chase, Samuel	Hopkins, Stephen	Nelson, Thomas, Jr.	Thornton, Matthew
Clark, Abraham	Hopkinson, Francis	Paca, William	Walton, George
Clymer, George	Huntington, Samuel	Paine, Robert Treat	Whipple, William
Ellery, William	Jefferson, Thomas	Penn, John	Williams, William
Floyd, William	Lee, Francis Light-	Read, George	Wilson, James
Franklin, Benjamin	foot	Rodney, Caesar	Witherspoon, John
Gerry, Elbridge	Lee, Richard Henry	Ross, George	Wolcott, Oliver
Gwinnett, Button	Lewis, Francis	Rush, Benj., M.D.	Wythe, George
Hall, Lyman	Livingston, Philip		

THE ORIGINAL
ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

TO ALL TO WHOM THESE PRESENTS SHALL COME,

We, the undersigned Delegates of the States affixed to our names, send greeting.

WHEREAS, the delegates of the United States of America in congress assembled, did, on the fifteenth day of November, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-seven, and in the second year of the independence of America, agree to certain articles of confederation and perpetual union between the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, in the words following, viz.:

Articles of Confederation and perpetual union between the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

ARTICLE I.—The style of this confederacy shall be “The United States of America.”

ART. II.—Each state retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right, which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in congress assembled.

ART. III.—The said states hereby severally enter into a firm league of friendship with each other, for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare; binding themselves to assist each other against all force offered to, or attacks made upon them, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, trade, or any other pretence whatever.

ART. IV.—The better to secure and perpetuate mutual friendship and intercourse among the people of the different states in this union, the free inhabitants of each of these states, paupers, vagabonds, and fugitives from justice excepted, shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of free citizens in the several states; and the people of each state shall have free ingress and regress to and from any other state, and shall enjoy therein all the privileges of trade and commerce, subject to the same duties, impositions, and restrictions as the inhabitants thereof respectively, provided that such restrictions shall not extend so far as to prevent the removal of property imported into any state, to any other state of which the owner is an inhabitant; provided also, that no imposition, duties, or restriction shall be laid by any state on the property of the United States, or either of them.

If any person guilty of, or charged with treason, felony, or other high misdemeanor, in any state, shall flee from justice, and be found in any of the United States, he shall, upon demand of the government or executive power of the state from which he fled, be delivered up and removed to the state having jurisdiction of his offence.

Full faith and credit shall be given in each of these states to the records, acts, and judicial proceedings of the courts and magistrates of every other state.

ART. V.—For the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, delegates shall be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state shall direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November, in every year; with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year.

No state shall be represented in congress by less than two, nor by more than seven members; and no person shall be capable of being a delegate for more than three years in any term of six years; nor shall any person, being a delegate, be capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or another for his benefit, receives any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind.

Each state shall maintain its own delegates in a meeting of the states, and while they act as members of the committee of the states.

In determining questions in the United States, in congress assembled, each state shall have one vote.

Freedom of speech and debate in congress shall not be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of congress, and the members of congress shall be protected in their persons from arrests and imprisonments, during the time of their going to, and from, and attendance on congress, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.*

ART. VI.—No state, without the consent of the United States in congress assembled, shall send any embassy to, or receive any embassy from, or enter into any conference, agreement, alliance, or treaty with any king, prince, or state; nor shall any person holding any office of profit or trust under the United States, or any of them, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever from any king, prince, or foreign state; nor shall the United States in congress assembled, or any of them, grant any title of nobility.

No two or more states shall enter into any treaty, confederation, or alliance whatever between them, without the consent of the United States in congress assembled, specifying accurately the purposes for which the same is to be entered into, and how long it shall continue.

No state shall lay any imposts or duties, which may interfere with any stipulations in treaties, entered into by the United States in congress assembled, with any king, prince, or state, in pursuance of any treaties already proposed by congress, to the courts of France and Spain.

No vessels of war shall be kept up in time of peace by any state, except such number only as shall be deemed necessary by the United States in congress assembled, for the defence of such state or its trade; nor shall any body of forces be kept up by any state in time of peace, except such number only as, in the judgment of the United States, in congress assembled, shall be deemed requisite to garrison the forts necessary for the defence of such state; but every state shall always keep up a well-regulated and disciplined militia, sufficiently armed and accoutred, and shall provide and constantly have ready for use, in public stores, a due number of fieldpieces and tents, and a proper quantity of arms, ammunition, and camp equipage.

No state shall engage in any war without the consent of the United States in congress assembled, unless such state be actually invaded by enemies, or shall have received certain advice of a resolution being formed by some nation of Indians to invade such state, and the danger is so imminent as not to admit of a delay, till the United States in congress assembled can be consulted; nor shall any state grant commissions to any ships or vessels of war, nor letters of marque or reprisal, except it be after a declaration of war by the United States in congress assembled, and then only against the kingdom or state and the subjects thereof, against which war has been so declared, and under such regulations as shall be established by the United States in congress assembled; unless such state be infested by pirates, in which case vessels of war may be fitted out for that occasion, and kept so long as the danger shall continue, or until the United States in congress assembled shall determine otherwise.

ART. VII.—When land forces are raised by any state for the common defence,

all officers of or under the rank of colonel, shall be appointed by the legislature of each state respectively, by whom such forces shall be raised, or in such manner as such state shall direct; and all vacancies shall be filled up by the state which first made the appointment.

ART. VIII.—All charges of war, and all other expenses that shall be incurred for the common defence or general welfare, and allowed by the United States in congress assembled, shall be defrayed out of a common treasury, which shall be supplied by the several states, in proportion to the value of all land within each state, granted to or surveyed for any person, as such land and the buildings and improvements thereon shall be estimated, according to such mode as the United States in congress assembled shall from time to time direct and appoint.

The taxes for paying that proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the several states, within the time agreed upon by the United States in congress assembled.

ART. IX.—The United States in congress assembled shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of determining on peace and war, except in the cases mentioned in the sixth article—of sending and receiving ambassadors—entering into treaties and alliances, provided that no treaty of commerce shall be made, whereby the legislative power of the respective states shall be restrained from imposing such imposts and duties on foreigners, as their own people are subjected to, or from prohibiting the exportation or importation of any species of goods or commodities whatsoever—of establishing rules for deciding, in all cases, what captures on land or water shall be legal, and in what manner prizes taken by land or naval forces in the service of the United States shall be divided or appropriated—of granting letters of marque and reprisal in times of peace—appointing courts for the trial of piracies and felonies committed on the high seas—and establishing courts for receiving and determining finally appeals in all cases of captures, provided that no member of congress shall be appointed a judge of any of the said courts.

The United States in congress assembled shall also be the last resort on appeal in all disputes and differences now subsisting, or that hereafter may arise between two or more states, concerning boundary, jurisdiction, or any other cause whatever; which authority shall always be exercised in the manner following. Whenever the legislative or executive authority, or lawful agent of any state in controversy with another, shall present a petition to congress, stating the matter in question, and praying for a hearing, notice thereof shall be given by order of congress to the legislative or executive authority of the other state in controversy, and a day assigned for the appearance of the parties by their lawful agents, who shall then be directed to appoint, by joint consent, commissioners or judges to constitute a court for hearing and determining the matter in question, but if they cannot agree, congress shall name three persons out of each of the United States, and from the list of such persons each party shall alternately strike out one, the petitioners beginning, until the number shall be reduced to thirteen; and from that number not less than seven, nor more than nine names, as congress shall direct, shall in the presence of congress be drawn out by lot, and the persons whose names shall be so drawn, or any five of them, shall be commissioners or judges, to hear and finally determine the controversy, so always as a major part of the judges who shall hear the cause shall agree in the determination; and if either party shall neglect to attend at the day appointed, without showing reasons which congress shall judge sufficient, or being present shall refuse to strike, the congress shall proceed to nominate three persons out of each state, and the secretary of congress shall strike in behalf of such party absent or refusing; and the judgment and sentence of the court to be appointed, in the manner before prescribed, shall be final and conclusive; and if any of the parties shall refuse to submit to the authority of such court, or to appear or defend their claim or cause, the court shall nevertheless proceed to pronounce sentence, or judgment, which shall in like manner be final and decisive; the judgment or sentence and other proceedings being in either case transmitted to congress, and lodged among

the acts of congress, for the security of the parties concerned; provided that every commissioner, before he sits in judgment, shall take an oath, to be administered by one of the judges of the supreme or superior court of the state where the cause shall be tried, "*well and truly to hear and determine the matter in question, according to the best of his judgment, without favour, affection, or hope of reward;*" provided also that no state shall be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States.

All controversies concerning the private right of soil, claimed under different grants of two or more states, whose jurisdictions, as they may respect such lands, and the states which passed such grants, are adjusted, the said grants or either of them being at the same time claimed to have originated antecedent to such settlement of jurisdiction, shall, on the petition of either party to the congress of the United States, be finally determined as near as may be in the same manner as is before prescribed for deciding disputes respecting territorial jurisdiction between different states.

The United States in congress assembled shall also have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective states—fixing the standard of weights and measures throughout the United States—regulating the trade and managing all affairs with the Indians, not members of any of the states, provided that the legislative right of any state within its own limits be not infringed or violated—establishing and regulating post-offices from one state to another, throughout all the United States, and exacting such postage on the papers passing through the same as may be requisite to defray the expenses of the said office—appointing all officers of the land forces in the service of the United States, excepting regimental officers—appointing all the officers of the naval forces, and commissioning all officers whatever in the service of the United States—making rules for the government and regulation of the said land and naval forces, and directing their operations.

The United States in congress assembled shall have authority to appoint a committee, to sit in the recess of congress, to be denominated "a Committee of the States," and to consist of one delegate from each state; and to appoint such other committee and civil officers as may be necessary for managing the general affairs of the United States under their direction—to appoint one of their number to preside, provided that no person be allowed to serve in the office of President more than one year in any term of three years; to ascertain the necessary sums of money to be raised for the service of the United States, and to appropriate and apply the same for defraying the public expenses—to borrow money, or emit bills on the credit of the United States, transmitting every half year to the respective states an account of the sums of money so borrowed or remitted—to build and equip a navy—to agree upon the number of land forces, and to make requisitions from each state for its quota, in proportion to the number of white inhabitants in such state; which requisitions shall be binding, and thereupon the legislature of each state shall appoint the regimental officers, raise the men, and clothe, arm, and equip them in a soldier-like manner, at the expense of the United States; and the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in congress assembled; but if the United States in congress assembled shall, on consideration of circumstances, judge proper that any state should not raise men, or should raise a smaller number than its quota, and that any other state should raise a greater number of men than the quota thereof, such extra number shall be raised, officered, clothed, armed, and equipped in the same manner as the quota of such state, unless the legislature of such state shall judge that such extra number cannot be safely spared out of the same, in which case they shall raise, officer, clothe, arm, and equip as many of such extra number as they judge can be safely spared. And the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in congress assembled.

The United States in congress assembled shall never engage in a war, nor grant

letters of marque and reprisal in time of peace, nor enter into treaties or alliances, nor coin money, nor regulate the value thereof, nor ascertain the sums and expenses necessary for the defence and welfare of the United States, or any of them, nor emit bills, nor borrow money on the credit of the United States, nor appropriate money, nor agree upon the number of vessels of war to be built or purchased, or the number of land or sea forces to be raised, nor appoint a commander in chief of the army or navy, unless nine states assent to the same: nor shall a question on any other point, except for adjourning from day to day, be determined, unless by the votes of a majority of the United States in congress assembled.

The congress of the United States shall have power to adjourn to any time within the year, and to any place within the United States, so that no period of adjournment be for a longer duration than the space of six months; and shall publish the journal of their proceedings monthly, except such parts thereof relating to treaties, alliances, or military operations, as in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the delegates of each state on any question shall be entered on the journal, when it is desired by any delegate; and the delegates of a state, or any of them, at his or their request, shall be furnished with a transcript of the said journal, except such parts as are above excepted, to lay before the legislatures of the several states.

ART. X.—The committee of the states, or any nine of them, shall be authorized to execute, in the recess of congress, such of the powers of congress as the United States in congress assembled, by the consent of nine states, shall from time to time think expedient to vest them with; provided that no power be delegated to the said committee, for the exercise of which, by the Articles of Confederation, the voice of nine states in the congress of the United States assembled is requisite.

ART. XI.—Canada acceding to this confederation, and joining in the measures of the United States, shall be admitted into, and entitled to all the advantages of this union; but no other colony shall be admitted into the same, unless such admission be agreed to by nine states.

ART. XII.—All bills of credit emitted, moneys borrowed, and debts contracted by, or under the authority of congress, before the assembling of the United States, in pursuance of the present confederation, shall be deemed and considered as a charge against the United States, for payment and satisfaction whereof, the said United States and the public faith are hereby solemnly pledged.

ART. XIII.—Every state shall abide by the determinations of the United States in congress assembled on all questions which by this confederation are submitted to them. And the articles of this confederation shall be inviolably observed by every state, and the union shall be perpetual; nor shall any alteration at any time hereafter be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to by a congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislatures of every state.

And whereas it hath pleased the great Governor of the World to incline the hearts of the legislatures we respectively represent in congress to approve of and to authorize us to ratify the said articles of confederation and perpetual union; know YE, that we, the undersigned delegates, by virtue of the power and authority to us given for that purpose, do by these presents, in the name and in behalf of our respective constituents, fully and entirely ratify and confirm each and every of the said articles of confederation and perpetual union, and all and singular the matters and things therein contained: and we do further solemnly plight and engage the faith of our respective constituents, that they shall abide by the determinations of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions which, by the said confederation, are submitted to them; and that the articles thereof shall be inviolably observed by the states we respectively represent, and that the union shall be perpetual.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands in congress. Done at Philadelphia in the state of Pennsylvania, the ninth day of July, in the year of

our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and in the third year of the independence of America.

On the part and behalf of the State of New Hampshire.

JOSIAH BARTLETT, JOHN WENTWORTH, Jun., August 8, 1778.

On the part and behalf of the State of Massachusetts Bay.

JOHN HANCOCK, ELBRIDGE GERRY, JAMES LOVELL,
SAMUEL ADAMS, FRANCIS DANA, SAMUEL HOLTEN.

On the part and behalf of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.

WILLIAM ELLERY, HENRY MARCHANT, JOHN COLLINS.

On the part and behalf of the State of Connecticut.

ROGER SHERMAN, OLIVER WOLCOTT, ANDREW ADAMS,
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON, TITUS HOSMER.

On the part and behalf of the State of New York.

JAS. DUANE, FRA. LEWIS, WM. DUER, GOUV. MORRIS

On the part and behalf of the State of New Jersey.

JNO. WITHERSPOON, November 26, 1778, NATH. SCUDDER, do.

On the part and behalf of the State of Pennsylvania.

ROBT. MORRIS, JONA. BAYARD SMITH, JOS. REED, 22d July, 1778,
DANIEL ROBERDEAU, WILLIAM CLINGAN.

On the part and behalf of the State of Delaware.

THOS. M'KEAN, Feb. 18, 1779, NICHOLAS VAN DYKE
JOHN DICKINSON, May 5, 1779.

On the part and behalf of the State of Maryland.

JOHN HANSON, March 1, 1781, DANIEL CARROLL, do.

On the part and behalf of the State of Virginia.

RICHARD HENRY LEE, THOS. ADAMS, FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE.
JOHN BANISTER, JNO. HARVIE.

On the part and behalf of the State of North Carolina.

JOHN PENN, July 21, 1778. CORNS. HARNETT, JNO. WILLIAMS.

On the part and behalf of the State of South Carolina.

HENRY LAURENS, JNO. MATTHEWS, THOS. HEYWARD, Jun.,
WILLIAM HENRY DRAYTON, RICHARD HUTSON.

On the part and behalf of the State of Georgia.

JNO. WALTON, 24th July, 1778. EDWD. TELFAIR,
EDW. LANGWORTHY.

[*Nota.*—From the circumstance of delegates from the same state having signed the Articles of Confederation at different times, as appears by the dates, it is probable they affixed their names as they happened to be present in congress, after they had been authorized by their constituents.]

THE
FAREWELL ADDRESS
OF
GEORGE WASHINGTON.

FRIENDS AND FELLOW-CITIZENS:—

The period for a new election of a citizen, to administer the executive government of the United States, being not far distant, and the time actually arrived when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom a choice is to be made. I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured, that this resolution has not been taken, without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest—no deficiency of grateful respect, for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in, the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped, that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of our affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiments of duty or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust, were sustained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say, that I have, with good intentions, contributed towards the organization and administration of the government, the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious, in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motive to diffidence of myself; and, every day, the

increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome. Satisfied that if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

In looking forward to the moment, which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country, for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, let it always be remembered to your praise, and as an instructive example in our annals, that under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances sometimes dubious—vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging—in situations in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism—the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans by which they were effected.

Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave as a strong incitement to unceasing vows that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence—that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual—that the free constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained—that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue—that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection, and the adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

Here perhaps I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger, natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments, which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all important to the permanency of your felicity as a people. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motives to bias his counsel. Nor can I forget as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion. Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

The unity of government which constitutes you one people is also now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence, the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee, that from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth; as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment, that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immovable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and to speak of it as the Palladium of your political safety and prosperity; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens, by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of *American*, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have in a common cause fought and triumphed together; the independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint counsels and joint efforts, of common danger, sufferings, and success. But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest. Here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the union of the whole.

The *North*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *South*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds in the productions of the latter, great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise, and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *South*, in the same intercourse, benefiting by the agency of the *North*, sees its agriculture grow, and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *North*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated; and while it contributes, in different ways, to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The *East*, in a like intercourse with the *West*, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communications, by land and water, will more and more find, a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *West* derives from the *East* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort; and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the secure enjoyment of indispensable outlets for its own productions to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest as ONE NATION. Any other tenure by which the *West* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connection with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

While then every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in union, all the parties combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations; and, what is of inestimable value, they must derive from union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries, not tied together by the same government; which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce, but which opposite alliances, attachments, and intrigues, would stimulate and embitter. Hence, likewise, they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to republican liberty; in this sense it is, that your union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear you to the preservation of the other.

These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the *union* as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt, whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorized to hope that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. 'Tis well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those, who in any quarter may endeavor to weaken its bands.

In contemplating the causes that may disturb our union, it occurs as a matter of serious concern, that any ground should have been furnished for characterizing parties by *geographical* discriminations—*Northern* and *Southern*—*Atlantic* and *Western*; whence designing men may endeavor to excite a belief that there is a real difference of local interest and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence, within particular districts, is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourself too much against the jealousies and heart-burnings which spring from these misrepresentations: they tend to render alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head: they have seen in the negotiation by the executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the Senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a policy in the general government and in the Atlantic States, unfriendly to their interest in regard to the *Mississippi*; they have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties, that with Great Britain and that with Spain, which secure to them every thing they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the union by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren and connect them with aliens?

To the efficacy and permanency of your union, a government for the whole is indispensable. No alliances, however strict, between the parts, can be an adequate substitute: they must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which all alliances in all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former, for an intimate union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of our own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the distribution of its powers, uniting security with energy, and containing within itself a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true liberty. The basis of our political system is the right of the people to make and alter their constitutions of government. But, the constitution which at any time exists, till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government, presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force, —to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small but artful and enterprising minority of the community; and according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans digested by common counsels, and modified by mutual interests. However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely in the course of time and things to become potent engines, by which cunning, ambitious, and unprincipled men, will be enabled to subvert the power of the people, and to usurp to themselves the reins of government; destroying afterwards the very energies which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite, not only that you steadily discountenance

irregular oppositions to its acknowledged authority, but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however specious the pretext. One method of assault may be to effect, in the forms of the constitution, alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of governments, as of other human institutions—that experience is the surest standard by which to test the real tendency of the existing constitution of a country—that facility in changes upon the credit of mere hypothesis and opinion, exposes to perpetual change, from the endless variety of hypothesis and opinion; and remember especially, that for the efficient management of your common interests, in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigor as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty, is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian. It is, indeed, little else than a name where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of the society within the limits prescribed by the law, and to maintain all in the secure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

I have already intimated to you, the danger of parties in the state, with particular reference to the founding of them on geographical discriminations. Let me now take a more comprehensive view, and warn you in the most solemn manner against the baneful effects of the spirit of party generally. This spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind.—It exists under different shapes in all governments, more or less stifled, controlled, or repressed; but in those of the popular form, it is seen in its greatest rankness, and is truly their worst enemy. The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge, natural to party dissension, which, in different ages and countries, has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself frightful despotism. But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent despotism. The disorders and miseries which result, gradually incline the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual; and sooner or later the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation, on the ruins of public liberty.

Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind, (which nevertheless ought not to be entirely out of sight,) the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it. It serves always to distract the public councils and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another, fomenting occasionally riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which finds a facilitated access to the government itself, through the channels of party passions. Thus the policy and the will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

There is an opinion that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This within certain limits is probably true; and in governments of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favor, upon the spirit of party. But in those of a popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From their natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose. And there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be, by force of public opinion, to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched, it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warming, it should consume.

It is important, likewise, that the habits of thinking, in a free country, should inspire caution in those intrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres, avoiding in the exer-

cise of the powers of one department to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power, and proneness to abuse it, which predominates in the human heart, is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power, by dividing and distributing it into different depositories, and constituting each the guardian of public weal against invasions by others, has been evinced by experiments ancient and modern, some of them in our country and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers be in any particular wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment in the way which the constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation; for though this, in one instance, may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance in permanent evil any partial or transient benefit which the use can at any time yield.

Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports.—In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connections with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked, where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation desert the oaths which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice; and let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principle. 'Tis substantially true, that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to it can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge.—In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it is to use it as sparingly as possible; avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace; but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger, frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding likewise the accumulations of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind that towards the payment of debts there must be revenue; to have revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant, that the intrinsic embarrassment inseparable from the selection of the proper object (which is always a choice of difficulties) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue which the public emergencies may at any time dictate.

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all: religion and morality enjoin this conduct; and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great nation, to give to mankind the

magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt that in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be, that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue? The experiment at least is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! is it rendered impossible by its vices?

In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others, should be excluded; and that in place of them just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. The nation which indulges towards another an habitual hatred, or an habitual fondness, is in some degree a slave. It is a slave to its animosity, or to its affection, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and its interest. Antipathy in one nation against another disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable, when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute occur. Hence frequent collisions, obstinate, envenomed, and bloody contests. The nation, prompted by ill-will and resentment, sometimes impels to war the government, contrary to the best calculations of policy. The government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts through passion what reason would reject; at other times it makes the animosity of the nation subservient to projects of hostility instigated by pride, ambition, and other sinister and pernicious motives. The peace often, sometimes perhaps the liberty, of nations has been the victim.

So likewise a passionate attachment of one nation for another produces a variety of evils. Sympathy for the favorite nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary common interest, in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and wars of the latter, without adequate inducement or justification. It leads also to the concession to the favorite nation of privileges denied to others, which is apt doubly to injure the nation making the concessions,—by unnecessarily parting with what ought to have been retained, and by exciting jealousy, ill-will, and a disposition to retaliate, in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld; and it gives to ambitious, corrupted, or deluded citizens (who devote themselves to the favorite nation) facility to betray or sacrifice the interests of their own country, without odium, sometimes even with popularity; gilding with the appearances of a virtuous sense of obligation, a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable zeal for public good, the base or foolish compliances of ambition, corruption, or infatuation.

As avenues to foreign influence in innumerable ways, such attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent patriot. How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domestic factions, to practice the arts of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to influence or awe the public councils! Such an attachment of small or weak, towards a great and powerful nation, dooms the former to be the satellite of the latter.—Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence (I conjure you to believe me, fellow-citizens), the jealousy of a free people ought to be constantly awake; since history and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of republican government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial: else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defence against it.—Excessive partiality for one foreign nation, and excessive dislike of another, cause those whom they actuate to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other.—Real patriots, who may resist the intrigues of the favorite, are liable to become suspected and odious; while its tools and dupes usurp the applause and confidence of the people, to surrender their interests. The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little political connection as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith.—Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities. Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off, when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality we may at any time resolve upon to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humor, or caprice? 'Tis our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronizing infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat it, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary, and would be unwise, to extend them. Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

Harmony, liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favors or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying by gentle means the streams of commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing with powers so disposed, in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and mutual opinion will permit, but temporary, and liable to be from time to time varied, as experience or circumstances shall dictate: constantly keeping in view, that 'tis folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another; that it must pay with a portion of its independence for whatever it may accept under that character; that by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favors, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect, or calculate upon real favors from nation to nation. 'Tis an illusion which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old and affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish; that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations: but, if I may even flatter myself, that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigues, and guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism; this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare, by which they have been dictated. How far, in the discharge of my official duties, I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records, and other evidences of my conduct, must witness to you and to the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my proclamation of the 22d of April, 1793, is the index to my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice, and by that of your representatives in both houses of congress, the spirit of

that measure has continually governed me, uninfluenced by any attempt to deter or divert me from it. After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest, to take a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it, with moderation, perseverance, and firmness.

The consideration which respects the right to hold the conduct, it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe, that according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the belligerent powers, has been virtually admitted by all. The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without any thing more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose upon every nation, in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity towards other nations. The inducements of interest for observing that conduct will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me, a predominant motive has been to endeavor to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress without interruption, to that degree of strength and consistency, which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortunes.

Though, in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error, I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence; and that after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service, with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest. Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it, which is so natural to a man who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations; I anticipate with pleasing expectation that retreat, in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow-citizens, the benign influence of good laws under a free government—the ever favorite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual care, labors, and dangers.

G. WASHINGTON

POPULATION OF ALL THE COUNTIES IN THE UNITED STATES,

ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1860.

NEW ENGLAND.

MAINE.		Strafford.....		Hampden.....	
An. roseoggin	29,725	Sullivan.....	19,041	Hampshire.....	87,524
Aroostook.....	22,459	Total Co. 10, In.....		Middlesex.....	216,351
Cumberland.....	75,592	VERMONT.		Nantucket.....	6,094
Franklin.....	20,408	Addison.....	24,010	Norfolk.....	109,950
Hancock.....	37,758	Bennington.....	19,435	Plymouth.....	64,768
Kennebec.....	55,655	Caledonia.....	21,708	Suffolk.....	192,701
Knox.....	32,716	Chittenden.....	28,171	Worcester.....	159,660
Lincoln.....	27,554	Essex.....	5,786	Total Co. 14, In.....	
Oxford.....	36,698	Franklin.....	27,241	RHODE ISLAND.	
Penobscot.....	72,731	Grand Isle.....	4,296	Bristol.....	8,907
Piscataquis.....	15,032	La Moille.....	12,311	Kent.....	17,303
Sagadahock.....	21,790	Orange.....	25,455	Newport.....	21,897
Somerset.....	36,754	Orleans.....	18,982	Providence.....	107,799
Waldo.....	38,447	Rutland.....	35,949	Washington.....	18,715
Washington.....	42,535	Washington.....	27,614	Total Co. 5, In.....	
York.....	62,197	Windham.....	26,983	CONNECTICUT.	
Total Co. 16, In.....		Windsor.....	37,195	Fairfield.....	77,476
NEW HAMPSHIRE.		Total Co. 14, In.....		Hartford.....	89,964
Belknap.....	18,548	MASSACHUSETTS.		Litchfield.....	47,317
Carroll.....	20,404	Barnstable.....	35,990	Middlesex.....	32,993
Cheshire.....	27,434	Berkshire.....	55,120	New Haven.....	97,347
Coos.....	13,162	Bristol.....	93,795	New London.....	57,422
Grafton.....	42,259	Dukes.....	4,403	Tolland.....	21,187
Hillsboro'.....	62,140	Essex.....	165,610	Windham.....	36,445
Merrimack.....	41,408	Franklin.....	31,434	Total Co. 8, In.....	
Rockingham.....	50,122	MIDDLE STATES.		Total Co. 60, In.....	

NEW YORK.		Monroe.....		Warren.....	
Albany.....	113,919	Montgomery.....	30,867	Washington.....	45,909
Alleghany.....	41,882	New York.....	813,668	Wayne.....	47,762
Broome.....	35,910	Niagara.....	50,399	Westchester.....	99,457
Cattaraugus.....	43,897	Oneida.....	105,201	Wyoming.....	31,967
Cayuga.....	55,769	Onondaga.....	90,687	Yates.....	20,291
Chautauque.....	58,354	Ontario.....	44,566	Total Co. 60, In.....	
Chemung.....	26,917	Orange.....	63,814	NEW JERSEY.	
Chenango.....	40,936	Orleans.....	28,717	Atlantic.....	11,786
Clinton.....	45,736	Oswego.....	75,960	Bergen.....	21,618
Columbia.....	47,250	Otsego.....	50,166	Burlington.....	49,730
Cortland.....	26,296	Putnam.....	14,002	Camden.....	84,457
Delaware.....	42,467	Queens.....	57,391	Cape May.....	7,130
Dutchess.....	64,939	Rensselaer.....	86,325	Cumberland.....	22,605
Erie.....	141,973	Richmond.....	25,493	Essex.....	98,875
Essex.....	28,214	Rockland.....	22,492	Gloucester.....	18,444
Franklin.....	30,836	St. Lawrence.....	83,659	Hudson.....	62,717
Fulton.....	24,162	Saratoga.....	51,732	Hunterdon.....	33,654
Genesee.....	32,189	Schenectady.....	20,002	Mercer.....	37,411
Greene.....	31,330	Schoharie.....	34,469	Middlesex.....	34,810
Hamilton.....	3,024	Schuyler.....	18,340	Monmouth.....	39,345
Herkimer.....	40,560	Seneca.....	28,139	Morris.....	34,679
Jefferson.....	69,823	Steuben.....	66,689	Ocean.....	11,176
Kings.....	279,125	Suffolk.....	43,276	Passaic.....	29,013
Lewis.....	28,581	Sullivan.....	52,355	Salem.....	22,458
Livingston.....	39,546	Tioga.....	28,739		
Madison.....	43,546	Tompkins.....	31,411		
		Ulster.....	76,379		

Somerset	22,057
Sussex	23,855
Warren	28,484
Union	27,781

Total Co. 21, In.....672,031

PENNSYLVANIA.

Adams	28,012
Alleghany	178,835
Armstrong	52,797
Beaver	29,144
Bedford	26,737
Berks	93,819
Blair	27,829
Bradford	48,735
Bucks	63,578
Butler	35,596
Cambria	29,156
Cameron	(new Co.)
Carbon	21,033
Centre	27,100
Chester	74,578
Clarion	24,994
Clearfield	18,758
Clinton	17,723
Columbia	25,065

Crawford	48,755
Cumberland	40,098
Dauphin	46,757
Delaware	90,597
Elk	5,915
Erie	49,431
Fayette	39,909
Forest	898
Franklin	42,128
Fulton	9,131
Greene	24,343
Huntington	24,101
Indiana	33,687
Jefferson	18,269
Juniata	16,956
Lancaster	116,815
Lawrence	22,999
Lebanon	31,831
Lehigh	43,754
Luzerne	90,243
Lycoming	37,898
McKean	8,859
Mercer	36,587
Mifflin	16,341
Monroe	16,759
Montgomery	70,500
Montour	13,053
Northampton	47,904

Northumberland	28,892
Perry	22,794
Philadelphia	565,531
Pike	7,155
Potter	11,470
Schuylkill	89,515
Snyder	15,035
Somerset	26,784
Sullivan	5,637
Susquehanna	36,267
Tioga	31,045
Union	14,145
Venango	25,044
Warren	19,190
Washington	46,804
Wayne	32,279
Westmoreland	53,736
Wyoming	12,540
York	68,200

Total Co. 66, In.....2,906,370

DELAWARE.

Kent	27,801
Newcastle	54,800
Sussex	29,617

Total Co. 3, In.....112,218

SOUTHERN STATES.

MARYLAND.

Alleghany	28,348
Anne Arundel	23,901
Baltimore	266,554
Calvert	10,447
Caroline	11,129
Carroll	24,532
Cecil	23,563
Charles	16,517
Dorchester	20,461
Frederick	46,576
Harford	23,415
Howard	13,338
Kent	13,267
Montgomery	15,322
Prince George	23,327
Queen Anne	15,961
St. Mary's	15,214
Somerset	24,992
Talbot	14,795
Washington	31,414
Worcester	20,661

Total Co. 21, In.....687,034

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington.....75,076

Total Co. 1, In.....75,076

VIRGINIA.

Accomack	18,586
Albemarle	26,625
Alexandria	12,652
Alleghany	6,765
Amelia	10,753
Amherst	13,743
Appomattox	8,887
Augusta	27,750
Barbour	8,959
Bath	3,676
Bedford	25,068
Berkeley	12,523
Bone	4,840
Betourt	11,516

Braxton	4,992
Brooke	5,494
Brunswick	14,811
Buchanan (Stephens)	2,798
Buckingham	15,212
Cabell	8,020
Calhoun	2,502
Campbell	26,197
Caroline	18,465
Carroll	8,012
Charles City	5,609
Charlottesville	14,469
Chesterfield	19,017
Clarke	7,146
Clay	1,787
Craig	8,553
Culpepper	12,064
Cumberland	9,961
Dinwiddie	30,198
Doddridge	5,293
Elizabeth City	5,798
Essex	10,469
Fairfax	11,835
Fauquier	21,704
Fayette	5,997
Floyd	8,236
Fluvanna	10,353
Franklin	20,098
Frederick	16,547
Giles	6,883
Gilmer	3,759
Gloucester	10,956
Goochland	10,656
Grayson	8,252
Greenbrier	12,210
Greene	5,025
Greenville	6,374
Halifax	26,521
Hampshire	13,913
Hancock	4,445
Hanover	17,225
Hardy	9,264
Harrison	13,799
Henrico	61,616
Henry	12,105
Highland	4,319
Isle of Wight	9,977

Jackson	8,306
James City	5,798
Jefferson	14,575
Kanawha	16,150
King and Queen	10,331
King George	6,571
King William	8,529
Lancaster	5,151
Lee	11,032
Lewis	7,999
Logan	4,938
Loudon	21,772
Louisa	16,698
Lunenburg	11,984
McDowell	1,535
Madison	8,854
Marion	12,721
Marshall	13,001
Mason	9,185
Matthews	7,091
Mecklenburg	20,056
Mercer	6,818
Middlesex	4,364
Monongalia	13,048
Monroe	10,757
Montgomery	10,615
Morgan	3,731
Nansemond	13,693
Nelson	13,015
New Kent	5,884
Nicholas	4,626
Norfolk	36,158
Northampton	7,532
Northumberland	7,530
Nottaway	8,836
Ohio	22,422
Orange	10,706
Page	8,109
Patrick	9,359
Pendleton	6,165
Pittsylvania	32,104
Pleasants	2,945
Pocahontas	8,958
Powhattan	8,891
Preston	13,812
Prince Edward	11,544
Prince George	8,411

Prince William.....	8,565	Granville.....	23,396	Lexington.....	15,579
Princess Anne.....	7,714	Greene.....	7,925	Marion.....	21,190
Pulaski.....	5,416	Guilford.....	20,056	Marlboro'.....	12,434
Ramoth.....	6,301	Halifax.....	19,441	Newberry.....	20,579
Raleigh.....	8,367	Harnett.....	8,099	Orangeburg.....	24,396
Randolph.....	4,990	Haywood.....	5,501	Pickens.....	19,639
Rappahannock.....	8,850	Henderson.....	10,448	Richland.....	18,834
Richmond.....	6,856	Hertford.....	9,504	Spartanburg.....	26,930
Ritchie.....	6,847	Hyde.....	7,724	Sumter.....	23,860
Roane.....	5,832	Iredell.....	15,347	Union.....	19,635
Roanoke.....	8,048	Jackson.....	5,528	Williamsburg.....	15,459
Rockbridge.....	17,250	Johnson.....	15,657	York.....	21,503
Rockingham.....	23,408	Jones.....	5,730		
Russell.....	10,180	Lenoir.....	10,211	Total Districts 80, In.....	703,812
Scott (Davis).....	12,072	Lillington.....	6,255		
Shenandoah.....	13,896	Lincoln.....	8,195		
Smyth.....	8,952	McDowell.....	7,120		
Southampton.....	12,914	Macon.....	6,004		
Spottsylvania.....	16,076	Madison.....	5,905		
Stafford.....	8,555	Martin.....	10,189		
Surry.....	6,183	Mecklenburg.....	17,374		
Sussex.....	10,175	Montgomery.....	7,649		
Taylor.....	7,463	Moore.....	11,427		
Tazewell.....	9,920	Nash.....	11,688		
Tucker.....	1,428	New Hanover.....	15,430		
Tyler.....	6,517	Northampton.....	13,376		
Upshur.....	7,292	Onslow.....	8,856		
Warren.....	6,442	Orange.....	16,949		
Warwick.....	1,740	Pasquotank.....	8,940		
Washington.....	16,898	Perquimans.....	7,248		
Wayne.....	6,747	Person.....	11,221		
Webster.....	1,555	Pitt.....	16,080		
Westmoreland.....	8,282	Polk.....	4,043		
Wetzel.....	6,103	Randolph.....	16,793		
Wirt.....	3,751	Richmond.....	11,009		
Wise.....	4,508	Robeson.....	15,490		
Wood.....	11,046	Rockingham.....	16,746		
Wyoming.....	2,865	Rowan.....	14,586		
Wythe.....	12,305	Rutherford.....	11,573		
York.....	4,946	Sampson.....	16,623		
		Stanly.....	7,801		
		Stokes.....	10,402		
		Surry.....	10,379		
		Tyrrel.....	4,943		
		Union.....	11,202		
		Wake.....	28,627		
		Warren.....	15,726		
		Washington.....	6,357		
		Watauga.....	4,957		
		Wayne.....	14,906		
		Wilkes.....	14,749		
		Wilson.....	9,720		
		Yadkin.....	10,718		
		Yancey.....	8,655		

Total Co. 148, In.....1,596,079

NORTH CAROLINA.

Alamance.....	11,853
Alexander.....	6,022
Alleghany.....	8,590
Anson.....	13,664
Ashe.....	7,956
Beaufort.....	14,779
Bertie.....	14,311
Bladen.....	11,995
Brunswick.....	8,406
Buncombe.....	12,654
Burke.....	9,237
Cabarrus.....	10,546
Caldwell.....	7,492
Camden.....	5,343
Carver.....	8,185
Caswell.....	16,215
Catawba.....	10,730
Chatham.....	19,105
Cherokee.....	9,166
Chowan.....	6,842
Cleveland.....	12,348
Columbus.....	8,597
Craven.....	16,273
Cumberland.....	16,369
Carrick.....	7,416
Davidson.....	16,601
Davie.....	8,494
Duplin.....	15,786
Edgecomb.....	17,376
Forsyth.....	12,691
Franklin.....	14,110
Gaston.....	9,310
Gates.....	8,444

Total Co. 87, In.....992,667

SOUTH CAROLINA.
(Districts.)

Abbeville.....	32,385
Anderson.....	22,872
Barnwell.....	30,743
Beaufort.....	40,052
Charleston.....	81,105
Chester.....	18,123
Chesterfield.....	11,834
Clarendon.....	18,099
Colleton.....	30,915
Darlington.....	20,343
Edgefield.....	39,887
Fairfield.....	22,111
Georgetown.....	21,305
Greenville.....	21,891
Horry.....	7,964
Kershaw.....	13,169
Lancaster.....	11,797
Laurens.....	23,858

GEORGIA.

Appling.....	4,190
Baker.....	4,985
Baldwin.....	9,078
Banks.....	4,707
Berrien.....	8,471
Bibb.....	16,291
Brooks.....	6,356
Bryan.....	4,013
Bullock.....	5,668
Burke.....	17,165
Butts.....	6,455
Calhoun.....	4,913
Camden.....	5,420
Campbell.....	8,201
Carroll.....	11,991
Cass.....	15,724
Catoosa.....	5,082
Charlton.....	1,780
Chatham.....	31,043
Chattooga.....	7,165
Chattahoochie.....	5,806
Cherokee.....	11,291
Clarke.....	11,225
Clay.....	4,893
Clayton.....	4,466
Clinch.....	3,063
Cobb.....	14,241
Coffee.....	2,879
Colowitt.....	1,316
Columbia.....	11,860
Coweta.....	14,703
Crawford.....	7,693
Dade.....	3,069
Dawson.....	3,857
Decatur.....	11,923
De Kalb.....	7,807
Dooley.....	8,915
Dougherty.....	8,295
Early.....	6,159
Echols.....	1,491
Effingham.....	4,756
Elbert.....	10,433
Emanuel.....	5,081
Fannin.....	5,140
Fayette.....	7,047
Floyd.....	15,195
Forsyth.....	7,749
Franklin.....	7,393
Fulton.....	14,427
Gilmer.....	6,722
Glascok.....	2,437
Glynn.....	3,859
Gordon.....	10,146
Greene.....	12,649
Gwinnett.....	12,940
Habersham.....	5,966
Hall.....	9,866
Hancock.....	12,044
Haralson.....	8,039
Harris.....	13,734
Hart.....	6,137

Heard.....	7,805
Henry.....	10,702
Houston.....	15,613
Irwin.....	1,699
Jackson.....	10,605
Jasper.....	10,743
Jefferson.....	10,219
Johnson.....	2,919
Jones.....	9,107
Laurens.....	6,998
Lee.....	7,176
Liberty.....	8,369
Lincoln.....	5,466
Lowndes.....	5,249
Lumpkin.....	4,626
McIntosh.....	5,546
Macon.....	8,499
Madison.....	5,933
Marion.....	7,890
Meriwether.....	15,329
Miller.....	1,791
Milton.....	4,602
Mitchell.....	4,308
Monroe.....	15,953
Montgomery.....	2,997
Morgan.....	9,998
Murray.....	7,083
Muscogee.....	16,584
Newton.....	14,323
Oglethorpe.....	11,549
Paulding.....	7,088
Pickens.....	4,951
Pierce.....	1,973
Pike.....	10,086
Polk.....	6,295
Pulaski.....	8,744
Putnam.....	10,130
Quitman.....	8,499
Rabun.....	3,271
Randolph.....	9,571
Richmond.....	21,284
Schley.....	4,633
Scriven.....	8,274
Spalding.....	8,699
Stewart.....	13,423
Sumter.....	9,428
Talbot.....	13,617
Tallapoosa.....	4,583
Tattnall.....	4,352
Taylor.....	6,000
Telfair.....	2,713
Terrell.....	6,237
Thomas.....	10,767
Towns.....	2,459
Troup.....	16,259
Twiggs.....	8,320
Union.....	4,413
Upson.....	9,910
Walker.....	10,082
Walton.....	11,072
Ware.....	2,200
Warren.....	9,820
Washington.....	12,698
Wayne.....	2,269
Webster.....	5,030
White.....	3,314
Whitfield.....	10,047
Wilcox.....	2,115
Wilkes.....	11,420
Wilkinson.....	9,876
Worth.....	2,763

Total Co. 132, In....1,057,329

FLORIDA.

A'achua.....	8,234
Brevard (St. Lucie).....	246
Calhoun.....	1,446

Clay.....	1,914
Columbia.....	4,727
Dade.....	83
Duval.....	5,095
Escambia.....	5,768
Franklin.....	1,904
Gadsden.....	9,396
Hamilton.....	4,154
Hernando (Benton).....	1,200
Hillsboro'.....	2,981
Holmes.....	1,386
Jackson.....	10,199
Jefferson.....	9,876
Lafayette.....	2,068
Leon.....	12,335
Levy.....	1,732
Liberty.....	1,437
Madison.....	7,779
Manatee.....	854
Marion.....	8,610
Monroe.....	2,912
Nassau.....	3,654
New River.....	4,655
Orange.....	987
Putnam.....	2,712
St. John's.....	3,039
Santa Rosa.....	5,481
Sumter.....	1,549
Suwanee.....	1,388
Taylor.....	1,384
Volusia.....	1,153
Wakulla.....	2,835
Walton.....	3,037
Washington.....	2,154

Total Co. 37, In....140,439

ALABAMA.

Autauga.....	16,739
Baldwin.....	7,533
Barbour.....	30,815
Benton.....	(dropped.)
Bibb.....	11,894
Blount.....	10,865
Butler.....	15,122
Calhoun.....	21,539
Chambers.....	23,214
Cherokee.....	18,360
Choctaw.....	18,887
Clarke.....	15,049
Coffee.....	9,623
Conecuh.....	11,311
Coosa.....	19,272
Covington.....	6,469
Dale.....	12,227
Dallas.....	33,625
De Kalb.....	10,705
Fayette.....	12,850
Franklin.....	18,628
Greene.....	30,859
Hancock.....	(dropped.)
Henry.....	14,917
Jackson.....	18,254
Jefferson.....	11,744
Lauderdale.....	17,420
Lawrence.....	13,976
Limestone.....	15,304
Lowndes.....	27,718
Macon.....	26,834
Madison.....	26,450
Marengo.....	31,794
Marion.....	11,180
Marshall.....	11,472
Mobile.....	41,131
Monroe.....	15,669
Montgomery.....	35,905
Morgan.....	11,331

Perry.....	27,727
Pickens.....	22,319
Pike.....	24,436
Randolph.....	30,059
Russell.....	26,593
St. Clair.....	11,012
Shelby.....	12,618
Sumter.....	24,035
Talladega.....	28,520
Tallapoosa.....	23,827
Tuscaloosa.....	23,202
Walker.....	7,980
Washington.....	4,669
Wilcox.....	24,618
Winston.....	3,570

Total Co. 54, In.....964,296

MISSISSIPPI.

Adams.....	20,165
Amité.....	12,336
Attala.....	14,168
Bolivar.....	10,471
Calhoun.....	9,518
Carroll.....	22,038
Chickasaw.....	16,426
Choctaw.....	15,740
Claiborne.....	15,650
Clarke.....	10,771
Coahoma.....	6,606
Copiah.....	15,399
Covington.....	4,408
De Soto.....	23,336
Franklin.....	8,265
Greene.....	2,232
Hancock.....	3,139
Harrison.....	4,819
Hinds.....	31,342
Holmes.....	17,794
Issaquena.....	7,831
Itawamba.....	17,695
Jackson.....	4,122
Jasper.....	11,007
Jefferson.....	15,349
Jones.....	3,323
Kemper.....	11,682
La Fayette.....	16,135
Lauderdale.....	13,318
Lawrence.....	9,213
Leake.....	9,324
Lowndes.....	23,625
Madison.....	23,382
Marion.....	4,686
Marshall.....	28,820
Monroe.....	21,283
Neshoba.....	8,343
Newton.....	9,661
Noxubee.....	20,666
Oktibbeha.....	12,982
Panola.....	13,794
Perry.....	2,606
Pike.....	11,135
Pontotoc.....	22,114
Rankin.....	13,637
Scott.....	8,140
Simpson.....	6,050
Smith.....	7,638
Sunflower.....	5,019
Tallahatchie.....	7,892
Tippah.....	22,550
Tishomingo.....	24,149
Tunica.....	4,367
Warren.....	20,710
Washington.....	15,679
Wayne.....	3,691
Wilkinson.....	15,935
Winston.....	9,811

Yallabusha	16,980
Yazoo	22,373
Total Co. 60, In.....	791,396

LOUISIANA.
(Parishes.)

Ascension.....	11,485
Assumption.....	15,379
Avoyelles.....	13,166
Baton Rouge, East.....	16,046
Baton Rouge, West.....	7,312
Bienville.....	11,000
Bossier.....	12,628
Caddo.....	12,140
Calcasieu.....	5,928
Caldwell.....	4,833
Carroll.....	18,053
Catahoula.....	11,652
Claiborne.....	16,846
Concordia.....	13,805
De Soto.....	13,299
Feliciana, East.....	14,696
Feliciana, West.....	11,671
Franklin.....	6,162
Iberville.....	14,661
Jackson.....	9,812
Jefferson.....	15,372
La Fayette.....	9,003
La Fourche.....	14,044
Livingstone.....	4,431
Madison.....	14,133
Morehouse.....	10,357
Natchitoches.....	16,697
Orleans.....	174,288
Opelousas.....	23,104
Plaquemine.....	8,493
Point Coupee.....	17,720
Rapides.....	25,360
Sabine.....	5,828
St. Bernard.....	4,076
St. Charles.....	5,297
St. Helena.....	7,130
St. James.....	11,504
St. John Baptist.....	7,932
St. Landry.....	23,100
St. Martin's.....	12,677
St. Mary's.....	16,812
St. Tammany.....	5,406
Tensas.....	16,080
Terre Bonne.....	12,090
Union.....	10,390
Vermillion.....	4,324
Washita.....	4,727
Washington.....	4,708
Winn.....	6,876

Total Parishes 49, In.....709,290

TEXAS.

Anderson.....	10,397
Angelica.....	4,271
Archer.....(not organized.)	
Attacosta.....	1,580
Austin.....	10,139
Bandera.....	399
Bastrop.....	5,726
Baylor.....(not organized.)	
Bee.....	910
Bell.....	4,800
Bexar.....	14,454
Blanco.....	1,281

Bosque.....	2,005
Bowie.....	5,052
Brazoria.....	7,143
Brazos.....	2,776
Brown.....	244
Buchanan.....	230
Burleson.....	5,683
Burnett.....	2,488
Calahan.....(not organized.)	
Caldwell.....	4,481
Calhoun.....	2,642
Cameron.....	6,030
Cass.....	8,411
Chambers.....	1,506
Cherokee.....	12,098
Clay.....	109
Coleman.....(not organized.)	
Collin.....	9,260
Colorado.....	7,885
Comal.....	4,030
Comanche.....	709
Conechos.....(not organized.)	
Cook.....	3,760
Coryell.....	2,666
Culloch.....(not organized.)	
Dallas.....	8,665
Dawson.....	281
Denton.....	5,390
De Witt.....	5,107
Dimmitt.....(not organized.)	
Duval.....(not organized.)	
Eastland.....	99
Edwards.....(not organized.)	
Ellis.....	5,246
El Paso.....	4,051
Encinal.....	43
Erath.....	2,425
Falls.....	3,614
Fannin.....	9,217
Fayette.....	11,604
Fort Bend.....	6,143
Freestone.....	6,881
Frio.....	40
Galveston.....	8,177
Guadalupe.....	5,444
Gillespie.....	2,736
Goliad.....	3,383
Gonzales.....	8,050
Grayson.....	8,187
Grimes.....	10,307
Hamilton.....	489
Hardeman.....(not organized.)	
Hardin.....	1,353
Harris.....	7,710
Harrison.....	15,001
Haskell.....(not organized.)	
Hays.....	2,058
Henderson.....	4,595
Hidalgo.....	1,193
Hill.....	3,653
Hopkins.....	7,745
Houston.....	8,058
Hunt.....	6,654
Jack.....	1,000
Jackson.....	2,612
Jasper.....	4,041
Jefferson.....	1,994
Johnson.....	4,305
Jones.....(not organized.)	
Karnes.....	2,171
Kaufman.....	8,936
Kemble.....(not organized.)	

Kerr.....	634
Kinney.....	61
Knox.....(not organized.)	
Lamar.....	10,136
Lampasas.....	1,023
La Salle.....(not organized.)	
Lavacca.....	5,948
Leon.....	6,781
Liberty.....	3,189
Limestone.....	4,537
Lavaca.....	593
Llano.....	1,101
McLennan.....	6,206
McMullen.....(not organized.)	
Madison.....	2,233
Marion.....	3,979
Mason.....	630
Matagorda.....	2,910
Maverick.....	728
Medina.....	1,538
Menard.....(not organized.)	
Milam.....	5,175
Montague.....	849
Montgomery.....	5,479
Nacogdoches.....	8,293
Navarro.....	5,997
Newton.....	3,123
Nueces.....	2,907
Orange.....	1,916
Palo Pinto.....	1,524
Panola.....	8,475
Parker.....	4,214
Polk.....	8,298
Presidio.....	580
Red River.....	8,534
Refugio.....	1,594
Robertson.....	4,997
Runnells.....(not organized.)	
Rusk.....	15,808
Sabine.....	2,750
San Augustine.....	4,094
San Patricio.....	620
San Saba.....	913
Shackelford.....	44
Shelby.....	5,862
Smith.....	13,395
Starr.....	2,406
Tarrant.....	6,020
Taylor.....(not organized.)	
Throckmorton.....	124
Titus.....	9,648
Travis.....	8,080
Trinity.....	4,392
Tyler.....	4,525
Upshur.....	10,645
Uvalde.....	506
Van Zandt.....	8,778
Victoria.....	5,675
Walker.....	8,191
Washington.....	15,215
Webb.....	1,446
Wharton.....	3,880
Wichita.....(not organized.)	
Wilbarger.....(not organized.)	
Williamson.....	4,529
Wise.....	3,160
Wood.....	4,968
Young.....	592
Za Patta.....	1,248
Zavalla.....	24
Total Co. 154, In.....	602,482

WESTERN STATES.

ARKANSAS.

Arkansas.....	8,844
Ashley.....	8,590

Benton.....	9,305
Bradley.....	8,888
Calhoun.....	4,103

Carroll.....	2,388
Chicot.....	9,231
Clark.....	9,733

Columbia.....	2,451	Greene.....	18,964	Caldwell.....	9,818
Conway.....	6,698	Grundy.....	3,094	Callaway.....	9,915
Craighead.....	3,066	Hamilton.....	13,259	Campbell.....	20,909
Crawford.....	7,850	Hancock.....	7,021	Carroll.....	6,578
Crittender.....	4,919	Hardeman.....	17,769	Carter.....	8,516
Dallas.....	8,287	Hardin.....	11,214	Casey.....	6,465
Desha.....	6,458	Hawkins.....	16,141	Christian.....	21,628
Drew.....	9,079	Haywood.....	19,232	Clark.....	11,484
Franklin.....	7,299	Henderson.....	14,491	Clay.....	6,652
Fulton.....	4,024	Henry.....	19,133	Clinton.....	5,781
Greene.....	5,844	Hickman.....	9,812	Crittenden.....	8,796
Hempstead.....	13,991	Humphreys.....	9,100	Cumberland.....	7,340
Hot Spring.....	5,635	Jackson.....	11,725	Daviess.....	15,549
Independence.....	14,308	Jefferson.....	16,042	Edmondson.....	4,647
Izard.....	7,215	Johnson.....	5,018	Estill.....	6,886
Jackson.....	10,493	Knox.....	22,812	Fayette.....	22,599
Jefferson.....	16,977	Lauderdale.....	7,562	Fleming.....	12,488
Johnson.....	7,612	Lawrence.....	9,319	Floyd.....	6,888
La Fayette.....	8,466	Lewis.....	2,241	Franklin.....	12,693
Lawrence.....	9,349	Lincoln.....	22,828	Fulton.....	5,817
Madison.....	7,740	McMinn.....	13,553	Gallatin.....	5,056
Marion.....	6,192	McNairy.....	14,732	Garrard.....	10,530
Mississippi.....	3,895	Macon.....	7,290	Grant.....	8,356
Monroe.....	5,657	Madison.....	21,535	Graves.....	16,234
Montgomery.....	3,633	Marion.....	6,190	Grayson.....	7,982
Newton.....	3,393	Marshall.....	14,592	Green.....	8,805
Perry.....	2,465	Mauy.....	32,498	Greenup.....	8,759
Phillips.....	14,878	Meigs.....	4,667	Hancock.....	6,213
Pike.....	4,025	Monroe.....	12,607	Hardin.....	15,190
Polk.....	3,621	Montgomery.....	20,895	Harlan.....	5,494
Poinsett.....	4,262	Morgan.....	3,353	Harrison.....	13,779
Pope.....	7,867	Obion.....	12,817	Hart.....	10,348
Prairie.....	8,854	Overton.....	12,637	Henderson.....	10,262
Pulaski.....	11,700	Perry.....	6,042	Henry.....	11,950
Randolph.....	6,261	Polk.....	8,726	Hickman.....	7,011
St. Francis.....	8,673	Putnam.....	8,558	Hopkins.....	11,375
Saline.....	6,640	Rhea.....	4,991	Jackson.....	8,057
Scott.....	5,145	Roane.....	13,585	Jefferson.....	89,405
Searcy.....	5,271	Robertson.....	15,265	Jessamine.....	9,466
Sebastian.....	9,238	Rutherford.....	27,918	Johnson.....	5,306
Sevier.....	10,516	Scott.....	3,519	Kenton.....	25,467
Union.....	12,288	Sequatchie.....	2,120	Knox.....	7,707
Van Buren.....	5,357	Sevier.....	9,122	La Rue.....	6,891
Washington.....	14,673	Shelby.....	48,091	Laurel.....	5,488
Washita.....	12,936	Smith.....	16,357	Lawrence.....	7,601
White.....	8,316	Stewart.....	9,888	Letcher.....	3,904
Yell.....	6,333	Sullivan.....	13,553	Lewis.....	8,361
		Sumner.....	22,030	Lincoln.....	10,646
Total Co. 55, In.....	435,427	Tipton.....	10,704	Livingston.....	7,202

TENNESSEE.

Anderson.....	7,068
Bedford.....	21,584
Benton.....	8,463
Bledsoe.....	4,459
Blount.....	13,272
Bradley.....	11,701
Campbell.....	6,712
Cannon.....	9,509
Carroll.....	17,518
Carter.....	7,124
Chatham.....	7,258
Claborne.....	9,644
Cocke.....	10,408
Coffee.....	9,659
Cumberland.....	3,460
Davidson.....	47,054
Decatur.....	6,277
De Kalb.....	10,573
Dickson.....	9,982
Dyer.....	10,536
Fayette.....	24,329
Fentress.....	5,054
Franklin.....	13,843
Gibson.....	21,733
Giles.....	26,166
Granger.....	10,962

Total Co. 84, In.....1,109,847

KENTUCKY.

Adair.....	9,509	Caldwell.....	9,818
Allen.....	9,187	Callaway.....	9,915
Anderson.....	7,404	Campbell.....	20,909
Ballard.....	8,693	Carroll.....	6,578
Barren.....	16,665	Carter.....	8,516
Bath.....	12,118	Casey.....	6,465
Boone.....	11,197	Christian.....	21,628
Bourbon.....	14,859	Clark.....	11,484
Boyd.....	6,044	Clay.....	6,652
Boyle.....	9,305	Clinton.....	5,781
Bracken.....	11,021	Crittenden.....	8,796
Breathitt.....	4,950	Cumberland.....	7,340
Breckenridge.....	13,287	Daviess.....	15,549
Bullitt.....	7,259	Edmondson.....	4,647
Butler.....	7,927	Estill.....	6,886
		Fayette.....	22,599
		Fleming.....	12,488
		Floyd.....	6,888
		Franklin.....	12,693
		Fulton.....	5,817
		Gallatin.....	5,056
		Garrard.....	10,530
		Grant.....	8,356
		Graves.....	16,234
		Grayson.....	7,982
		Green.....	8,805
		Greenup.....	8,759
		Hancock.....	6,213
		Hardin.....	15,190
		Harlan.....	5,494
		Harrison.....	13,779
		Hart.....	10,348
		Henderson.....	10,262
		Henry.....	11,950
		Hickman.....	7,011
		Hopkins.....	11,375
		Jackson.....	8,057
		Jefferson.....	89,405
		Jessamine.....	9,466
		Johnson.....	5,306
		Kenton.....	25,467
		Knox.....	7,707
		La Rue.....	6,891
		Laurel.....	5,488
		Lawrence.....	7,601
		Letcher.....	3,904
		Lewis.....	8,361
		Lincoln.....	10,646
		Livingston.....	7,202
		Logan.....	19,021
		Lyon.....	5,309
		McCracken.....	10,360
		McLean.....	6,146
		Madison.....	17,207
		Magoffin.....	3,454
		Marion.....	12,605
		Marshall.....	6,984
		Mason.....	18,223
		Mead.....	8,898
		Mercer.....	13,701
		Metcalfe.....	6,745
		Monroe.....	8,551
		Montgomery.....	7,859
		Morgan.....	9,238
		Muhlenburg.....	10,725
		Nelson.....	15,801
		Nicholas.....	11,030
		Ohio.....	12,208
		Oldham.....	7,283
		Owen.....	12,721
		Owsley.....	5,335
		Pendleton.....	10,443
		Perry.....	9,950
		Pike.....	7,384
		Powell.....	2,257
		Pulaski.....	17,203
		Rock Castle.....	5,543
		Rowan.....	2,282

Russell.....	6,024	Morgan.....	22,117	Mason.....	831
Scott.....	14,417	Morrow.....	20,445	Michilimackinac.....	1,938
Shelby.....	16,436	Muskingum.....	44,417	Midland.....	787
Simpson.....	8,146	Noble.....	20,731	Missaukee.....(not organized.)	
Spencer.....	6,188	Ottawa.....	7,017	Monroe.....	21,563
Taylor.....	7,481	Paulding.....	4,945	Moncalm.....	3,968
Todd.....	11,575	Perry.....	19,679	Montmorency (not organized.)	
Trigg.....	11,052	Pickaway.....	28,469	Muskegon.....	3,947
Trimble.....	5,880	Pike.....	18,643	Necosta.....	970
Union.....	12,791	Portage.....	24,206	Newaygo.....	2,761
Warren.....	17,325	Preble.....	21,820	Oakland.....	38,261
Washington.....	11,575	Putnam.....	12,808	Oceana.....	1,816
Wayne.....	10,258	Richland.....	31,156	Ogemaw.....(not organized.)	
Webster.....	7,593	Ross.....	35,071	Ontonagon.....	4,568
Whitley.....	7,762	Sandusky.....	21,147	Osceola.....	27
Woodford.....	11,220	Scioto.....	24,297	Oscoda.....(not organized.)	
Total Co 109, In.....	1,155,713	Seneca.....	30,869	Otsego.....(not organized.)	
Ohio.		Shelby.....	17,493	Ottawa.....	13,215
Adams.....	20,309	Stark.....	42,976	Presque Isle.....	26
Allen.....	19,185	Summit.....	27,340	Roscommon (not organized.)	
Ashland.....	22,951	Trumbull.....	30,656	Saginaw.....	12,693
Ashtabula.....	31,814	Tuscarawas.....	32,463	St. Clair.....	26,602
Athens.....	21,364	Union.....	16,507	St. Joseph.....	21,262
Auglaize.....	17,188	Van Wert.....	10,238	Sanilac.....	7,601
Belmont.....	36,438	Vinton.....	13,631	Schiaswassee.....	12,349
Brown.....	29,956	Warren.....	26,908	Schoolcraft.....	78
Butler.....	85,840	Washington.....	36,271	Tuscola.....	4,886
Carroll.....	15,738	Wayne.....	32,483	Van Buren.....	15,224
Champaign.....	22,698	Williams.....	16,632	Washtenaw.....	35,688
Clark.....	25,301	Wood.....	17,886	Wayne.....	75,548
Clermont.....	33,037	Wyandotte.....	15,596	Wexford.....(not organized.)	
Clinton.....	21,462	Total Co. 88, In.....	2,339,599	Total Co. 73, In.....	749,112
Columbiana.....	32,836	MICHIGAN.		INDIANA.	
Coshocton.....	25,032	Alcona.....	185	Adams.....	9,574
Crawford.....	23,880	Allegan.....	16,087	Allen.....	29,327
Cuyahoga.....	78,035	Alpena.....	290	Bartholomew.....	17,945
Darke.....	26,209	Antrim.....	179	Benton.....	2,810
Defiance.....	11,886	Barry.....	13,558	Blackford.....	4,122
Delaware.....	23,912	Bay.....	3,164	Boone.....	16,754
Erie.....	24,473	Berrien.....	22,376	Brown.....	6,507
Fairfield.....	30,538	Branch.....	20,981	Carroll.....	13,439
Fayette.....	15,936	Calhoun.....	29,563	Cass.....	16,843
Franklin.....	50,373	Cass.....	17,721	Clarke.....	20,506
Fulton.....	14,044	Cheboygan.....	517	Clay.....	12,160
Gallia.....	22,045	Chippewa.....	1,603	Clinton.....	14,505
Geauga.....	15,817	Clare.....(not organized.)		Crawford.....	8,205
Greene.....	26,197	Clinton.....	13,916	Daviess.....	13,861
Guernsey.....	24,474	Crawford.....(not organized.)		Dearborn.....	24,406
Hamilton.....	216,411	Delta.....	1,172	Decatur.....	17,294
Hancock.....	22,886	Eaton.....	16,476	De Kalb.....	18,880
Hardin.....	13,569	Emmett.....	1,149	Delaware.....	15,758
Harrison.....	19,109	Genesee.....	22,498	Du Bois.....	10,394
Henry.....	8,901	Gladwin.....	14	Elkhart.....	20,991
Highland.....	27,774	Grand Traverse.....	1,286	Fayette.....	10,186
Hocking.....	17,059	Gratiot.....	4,042	Floyd.....	20,182
Holmes.....	20,589	Hillsdale.....	25,675	Fountain.....	15,567
Huron.....	29,899	Houghton.....	9,235	Franklin.....	19,530
Jackson.....	17,941	Huron.....	8,165	Fulton.....	9,421
Jefferson.....	26,117	Ingram.....	17,435	Gibson.....	14,532
Knox.....	27,735	Ionia.....	16,682	Grant.....	15,779
Lake.....	15,576	Iosco.....	175	Greene.....	16,042
Lawrence.....	23,254	Isabella.....	1,443	Hamilton.....	17,810
Licking.....	37,011	Jackson.....	26,671	Hancock.....	12,801
Logan.....	20,997	Kalamazoo.....	24,645	Harrison.....	18,421
Lorain.....	29,745	Kalcaea.....(not organized.)		Hendricks.....	16,953
Lucas.....	25,831	Kent.....	30,715	Henry.....	20,118
Madison.....	13,015	Lake.....(not organized.)		Howard.....	12,524
Mahoning.....	25,895	Lenawaw.....	2,158	Huntington.....	14,868
Marion.....	15,490	La Peer.....	14,754	Jackson.....	16,288
Medina.....	22,517	Lenawee.....	38,112	Jasper.....	4,292
Meigs.....	26,534	Livingston.....	16,852	Jay.....	11,399
Mercer.....	14,105	Macomb.....	22,848	Jefferson.....	25,039
Miami.....	29,959	Manistee.....	975	Jennings.....	14,754
Monroe.....	25,743	Manitou.....	1,042	Johnson.....	14,855
Montgomery.....	52,233	Marquette.....	2,821	Knox.....	16,028

Kosciusko.....	17,424
La Grange.....	11,866
Lake.....	9,143
La Porte.....	22,921
Lawrence.....	13,693
Madison.....	16,514
Marion.....	89,558
Marshall.....	12,722
Martin.....	8,975
Miami.....	16,851
Monroe.....	12,843
Montgomery.....	20,889
Morgan.....	16,110
Newton.....	2,360
Noble.....	14,915
Ohio.....	5,462
Orange.....	12,076
Owen.....	14,876
Parke.....	15,588
Perry.....	11,840
Pike.....	10,079
Porter.....	10,314
Posey.....	16,166
Pulaski.....	6,711
Putnam.....	20,681
Randolph.....	18,997
Ripley.....	19,058
Rush.....	16,192
St. Joseph.....	18,455
Scott.....	7,304
Shelby.....	19,571
Spencer.....	14,556
Stark.....	2,195
Steuben.....	10,874
Sullivan.....	15,068
Switzerland.....	12,698
Tippecanoe.....	25,765
Tipton.....	8,171
Union.....	7,110
Vanderburg.....	20,554
Vermillion.....	9,423
Vigo.....	22,519
Wabash.....	17,547
Warren.....	10,057
Warwick.....	18,268
Washington.....	17,929
Wayne.....	29,558
Wells.....	10,884
White.....	8,263
Whitley.....	10,731

Total Co. 92, In.....1,350,941

ILLINOIS.

Adams.....	41,823
Alexander.....	4,706
Bond.....	9,813
Boone.....	11,678
Brown.....	9,988
Bureau.....	26,429
Calhoun.....	5,145
Carroll.....	11,733
Cass.....	11,325
Champaign.....	14,628
Christian.....	10,493
Clarke.....	14,987
Clay.....	9,386
Clinton.....	10,941
Coles.....	14,200
Cook.....	144,957
Crawford.....	11,551
Cumberland.....	8,311
De Kalb.....	19,086
De Witt.....	10,819
Douglas.....	7,140
Du Page.....	14,711

Edgar.....	16,925
Edwards.....	5,454
Efingham.....	7,816
Fayette.....	11,198
Ford.....	1,979
Franklin.....	9,393
Fulton.....	35,299
Gallatin.....	8,054
Greene.....	16,093
Grundy.....	10,879
Hamilton.....	9,915
Hancock.....	29,061
Hardin.....	8,748
Henderson.....	9,501
Henry.....	20,658
Iroquois.....	12,324
Jackson.....	9,559
Jasper.....	8,372
Jefferson.....	12,965
Jersey.....	12,053
Jo Daviess.....	27,277
Johnson.....	9,342
Kane.....	80,058
Kankakee.....	15,416
Kendall.....	13,074
Knox.....	28,668
Lake.....	18,256
La Salle.....	48,332
Lawrence.....	9,214
Lee.....	17,651
Livingston.....	11,638
Logan.....	14,276
McDonough.....	20,069
McHenry.....	22,088
McLean.....	28,749
Macon.....	18,735
Macoupin.....	24,602
Madison.....	31,215
Marion.....	12,733
Marshall.....	13,487
Mason.....	10,933
Massac.....	6,214
Menard.....	9,596
Mercer.....	15,042
Monroe.....	12,832
Montgomery.....	18,892
Morgan.....	22,113
Moultrie.....	6,355
Ogle.....	22,887
Peoria.....	36,600
Perry.....	9,552
Piatt.....	6,127
Pike.....	27,249
Pope.....	6,742
Pulaski.....	8,950
Putnam.....	5,587
Randolph.....	17,205
Richland.....	9,711
Rock Island.....	21,205
St. Clair.....	37,694
Saline.....	9,331
Sangamon.....	32,255
Schuyler.....	14,685
Scott.....	9,070
Shelby.....	14,635
Stark.....	9,004
Stephenson.....	25,113
Tazewell.....	21,471
Union.....	11,182
Vermillion.....	19,801
Wabash.....	7,312
Warren.....	18,336
Washington.....	13,731
Wayne.....	12,233
White.....	12,403
Whitesides.....	18,740
Will.....	39,321
Williamson.....	12,205

Winnebago.....	24,492
Woodford.....	13,232

Total Co. 102, In.....1,711,753

WISCONSIN.

Adams.....	6,497
Ashland.....	513
Bad Ax.....	11,012
Brown.....	11,797
Buffalo.....	3,865
Burnet.....	12
Calumet.....	7,896
Chippewa.....	1,595
Clark.....	789
Columbia.....	24,445
Crawford.....	8,071
Dallas.....	13
Dane.....	43,992
Dodge.....	42,819
Door.....	2,948
Douglas.....	828
Dunn.....	2,723
Eau Claire.....	3,164
Fond du Lac.....	34,155
Grant.....	31,207
Green.....	19,831
Green Lake.....	12,631
Iowa.....	18,998
Jackson.....	4,171
Jefferson.....	28,771
Juneau.....	8,704
Kenosha.....	13,516
Kewannee.....	5,530
La Crosse.....	12,194
La Fayette.....	18,141
La Pointe.....	672
Manitowoc.....	22,835
Marathon.....	2,934
Marquette.....	8,234
Milwaukee.....	62,564
Monroe.....	8,398
Oconto.....	3,600
Outagamie.....	9,588
Ozaukee.....	15,674
Pepin.....	2,397
Pierce.....	4,672
Polk.....	1,412
Portage.....	7,504
Racine.....	21,340
Richland.....	9,737
Rock.....	36,692
Sauk.....	18,894
Shawano.....	8,829
Sheboygan.....	26,848
St. Croix.....	5,893
Trempleau.....	2,550
Walworth.....	26,506
Washington.....	23,635
Waukesha.....	26,849
Waubesa.....	8,855
Waushara.....	8,772
Winnebago.....	23,769
Wood.....	2,429

Total Co. 58, In.....775,878

Iowa.

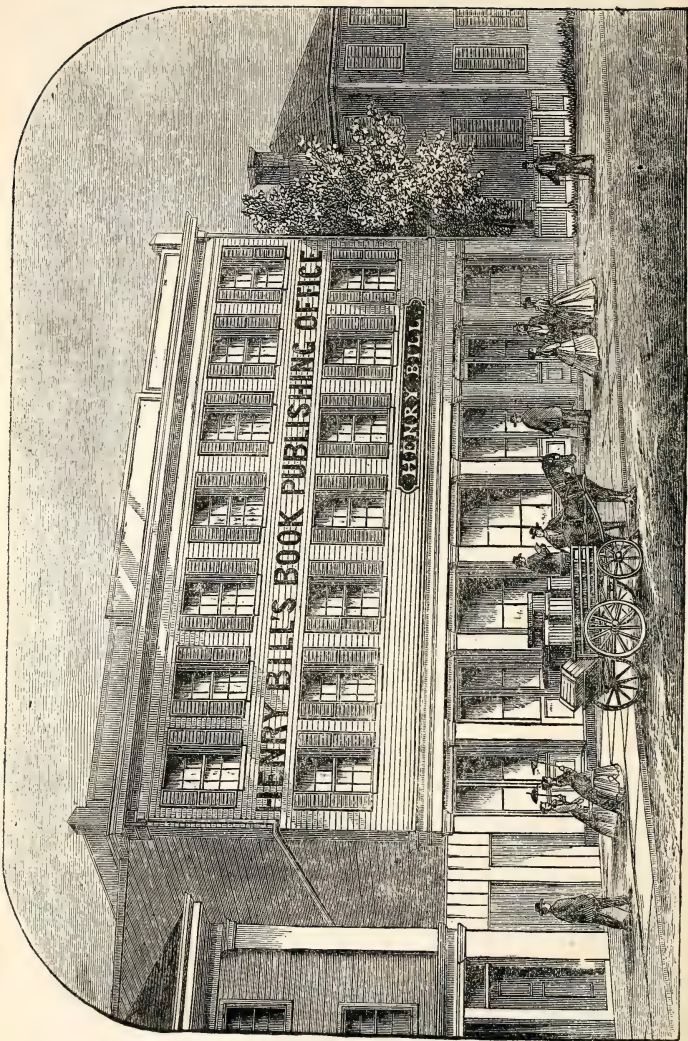
Adair.....	984
Adams.....	1,533
Alamakee.....	12,236
Appanoose.....	11,933
Audubon.....	454
Benton.....	8,562
Black Hawk.....	8,244
Boone.....	4,281

Bremer.....	4,915	Taylor.....	3,589	Wabashaw.....	7,225
Buchanan.....	7,906	Union.....	2,012	Wahnata.....	(dropped.)
Buena Vista.....	57	Van Buren.....	17,083	Waseca.....	2,601
Buncombe... (not organized.)		Wapell.....	14,518	Washington.....	6,123
Butler.....	3,724	Warren.....	10,282	Winona.....	9,208
Calhoun.....	147	Washington.....	14,233	Wright.....	3,729
Carroll.....	281	Wayne.....	6,411		
Cass.....	1,612	Webster.....	2,504	Total Co. 66, In.....	172,022
Cedar.....	12,949	Winnebago.....	168		
Cerro Gordo.....	940	Winneshiek.....	13,942		
Cherokee.....	57	Woodbury.....	1,119		
Chickasaw.....	4,335	Worth.....	756		
Clarke.....	5,427	Wright.....	653		
Clay.....	52				
Clayton.....	20,728	Total Co. 99, In.....	674,948		
Clinton.....	18,938				
Crawford.....	833				
Dallas.....	5,244				
Davis.....	13,764				
Decatur.....	8,677				
Delaware.....	11,028				
Des Moines.....	19,612				
Dickinson.....	180				
Dubuque.....	31,165				
Emmett.....	105				
Fayette.....	12,073				
Floyd.....	3,746				
Franklin.....	1,309				
Freimont.....	5,074				
Green.....	1,374				
Grundy.....	793				
Guthrie.....	3,053				
Hamilton.....	1,699				
Hancock.....	179				
Hardin.....	5,440				
Harrison.....	3,623				
Henry.....	18,700				
Howard.....	3,163				
Humboldt.....	832				
Ida.....	43				
Iowa.....	8,029				
Jackson.....	18,494				
Jasper.....	9,887				
Jefferson.....	15,037				
Johnson.....	17,572				
Jones.....	13,305				
Keokuk.....	13,254				
Kossuth.....	416				
Lee.....	29,232				
Linn.....	18,950				
Louisa.....	10,370				
Lucas.....	5,766				
Madison.....	7,338				
Mahaska.....	14,816				
Marion.....	16,815				
Marshall.....	6,015				
Mills.....	4,450				
Mitchell.....	3,409				
Monona.....	832				
Monroe.....	8,611				
Montgomery.....	1,256				
Muscatine.....	16,444				
Oseola... (not organized.)					
O'Brien.....	8				
Page.....	4,419				
Palo Alto.....	133				
Plymouth.....	143				
Pocahontas.....	103				
Polk.....	11,625				
Pottawattamie.....	4,962				
Poweshiek.....	5,670				
Ringgold.....	2,923				
Sac.....	246				
Scott.....	25,960				
Shelby.....	818				
Sioux.....	10				
Story.....	4,052				
Tama.....	5,285				
		Aiken.....	2	Adair.....	8,531
		Anoka.....	2,106	Andrew.....	11,850
		Becker.....	886	Atchison.....	4,649
		Benton.....	627	Audrain.....	8,074
		Blue Earth.....	4,802	Barry.....	7,794
		Breckenridge.....	79	Barton.....	1,817
		Brown.....	2,339	Bates.....	7,216
		Buchanan.....	26	Benton.....	9,072
		Carleton.....	51	Bollinger.....	7,888
		Carver.....	5,106	Boone.....	19,487
		Cass.....	150	Buchanan.....	23,861
		Chisago.....	91	Butler.....	2,891
		Cottonwood.....	12	Caldwell.....	5,034
		Crow Wing.....	269	Callaway.....	17,445
		Dakotah.....	9,993	Camden.....	4,975
		Dodge.....	3,737	Cape Girardeau.....	15,547
		Douglas.....	195	Carroll.....	9,775
		Faribault.....	1,335	Carter.....	1,234
		Fillmore.....	13,543	Cass.....	9,793
		Freeborn.....	3,367	Cedar.....	6,639
		Goodhue.....	8,997	Chariton.....	12,569
		Hennepin.....	12,849	Christian.....	5,491
		Houston.....	6,645	Clark.....	11,684
		Isanti.....	284	Clay.....	13,025
		Isasca.....	51	Clinton.....	7,848
		Jackson.....	181	Cole.....	9,696
		Kanabac.....	30	Cooper.....	17,358
		Kandiyoht.....	76	Crawford.....	5,827
		Lake.....	248	Dade.....	7,073
		Le Sueur.....	5,318	Dallas.....	5,892
		Mankakta.....	(dropped.)	Davies.....	9,605
		Manonlin.....	136	De Kalb.....	5,224
		Martin.....	151	Dent.....	5,654
		McLeod.....	1,286	Dodge.....	(dropped.)
		Meeker.....	928	Douglas.....	2,415
		Mille Lac.....	73	Dunklin.....	5,026
		Monongalia.....	350	Franklin.....	18,083
		Morrison.....	618	Gasconade.....	8,727
		Mower.....	3,217	Gentry.....	11,980
		Murray.....	29	Greene.....	13,186
		Nicollet.....	3,773	Grundy.....	7,895
		Noble.....	35	Harrison.....	10,627
		Olmstead.....	9,527	Henry.....	9,864
		Otter Tail.....	240	Hickory.....	4,705
		Pembina.....	1,612	Holt.....	6,550
		Pierce.....	10	Howard.....	15,949
		Pine.....	1,741	Howell.....	3,169
		Pipestone.....	23	Iron.....	5,842
		Polk.....	240	Jackson.....	22,914
		Ramsay.....	12,150	Jasper.....	6,883
		Renville.....	245	Jefferson.....	10,344
		Rice.....	7,543	Johnson.....	14,644
		Scott.....	4,594	Knox.....	8,726
		Sherburne.....	724	La Clede.....	5,180
		Sibley.....	3,609	La Fayette.....	20,091
		Stearns.....	4,505	Lawrence.....	8,847
		Steele.....	2,863	Lewis.....	12,286
		St. Louis.....	406	Lincoln.....	14,214
		Todd.....	40	Linn.....	9,112
		Toombs.....	480	Livingston.....	7,417
				McDonald.....	4,049
				Macon.....	14,407
				Madison.....	5,664
				Marion.....	4,901
				Marion.....	18,826
				Mercer.....	9,300
				Miller.....	6,812

[illegible]

TERRITORIES.

NEBRASKA.		Johnson	528	Marshall's Limits.....	1,792
Buffalo.....	114	Jones.....	122		
Burt.....	388	Kearney.....	474	Total Co. 36, In.....	28,886
Butler.....	27	Lancaster.....	153		
Calhoun.....	41	L'Eau Qui Court.....	152	NEW MEXICO.	
Cass.....	3,369	Merrick.....	44	Arizona.....	6,488
Cedar.....	246	Nemaha.....	3,149	Bernalillo.....	8,719
Clay.....	165	Nicholls.....	22	Dona Anna.....	6,239
Cuming.....	67	Otoe.....	4,211	Mora.....	5,766
Dakotah.....	819	Pawnee Reservation.....	36	Rio Arriba.....	9,849
Dawson.....	16	Pawnee.....	882	Santa Anna.....	3,572
Dixon.....	247	Platte and Madison.....	782	Santa Fe.....	8,114
Dodge.....	309	Polk.....	19	San Miguel.....	13,714
Douglas.....	4,324	Richardson.....	2,855	Socorro.....	6,787
Ft. Randall Mil. Sta.....	353	Salin.....	29	Tuacacana.....	14,193
Gage.....	421	Sarpy.....	1,201	Valencia.....	11,821
Greene.....	16	Shorter.....	114		
Hall.....	116	Washington.....	1,249	Total Co. 11, In.....	98,541



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